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The Future Uses of History¹

BY J. FRANKLIN JAMESON, HEAD OF DEPARTMENT OF HISTORICAL RESEARCH, CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON.

In the Church of Rome there is a class of titular bishops, employed rather in ecclesiastical business than in pastoral care, who usually have no actual dioceses, but are given titles derived from cities once obedient to Rome, but long since possessed by the Mohammedan or other unbeliever. For such prelates the style, bishop of such and such a place "in the regions of the unbelieving," *in partibus infidelium*, has till lately been the official designation.

I often think that the director of a department of historical research in this scientific city of Washington is a bishop *in partibus infidelium*. Perched in airy isolation upon the eleventh floor of the Woodward Building, he has no foot of ground that he can call his own temporal domain. As his glance goes forth over the neighboring houses, and over the monstrous cornice of the Southern Building, he sees a city rich in beauty and in historical associations, pulsating with political and social life, supplied in unexampled measure with the materials for American history, yet whose intellectual circles are almost as exclusively devoted to the worship of physical science as ever were the Ephesians to the cult of Diana.

In such an atmosphere, the bishop *in partibus* may on several grounds feel warranted in supposing that the work and objects of his department are not well known. It has put forth no effort to describe them to persons not members of the historical profession. It offers nothing spectacular or even striking to the public eye. It has made no notable discoveries, and has no intention of making any. If any such should ever occur, they will come unsought, as incidents to the single-minded and austere prosecution of the department's real purposes.

What then are those purposes? It is, perhaps, useful to remind the hearer, first of all, that historical work consists of four processes: first, the finding of the documents or other materials that have come down from past times and bear testimony of the events or themes that should be treated; secondly, the critical sifting of these documents, the laying of them in order, the preparation or publication of them for use in telling truly, completely and in proper perspective, the tale that they should tell; thirdly, the writing of monographs or special works on subjects of limited scope; and, fourthly, the composition of general histories. These four processes are, if we may put our classification into a metaphor, the work of the prospector, the work of the quarryman, the work of the mason, and the work of the architect respectively.

Now the writing of general histories, and even of historical monographs, is as a rule best left to indi-

vidual initiative, to the free exercise of those gifts of insight, of judgment, of imagination, of sympathy, and of power of interpretation, which can neither be commanded at will nor with entire success be organized. For an endowed department of historical research the proper tasks must be the humbler labors of search and of criticism—the finding of historical materials, the critical testing of their origin and value, the bringing them together, in their proper relation to materials already known, and the publication of them or of guides to them. Such tasks are usually too expensive for the individual, but they are relatively simple, they are to be executed by processes sufficiently well known and in accordance with rules securely established, and they call for the skill of the practised mechanic rather than for the genius of the architect, for the patient steadiness of the plough-horse rather than for the wings of Pegasus.

In the sanctum of the bishop *in partibus* already referred to, there hangs as almost its sole adornment a photograph of that painting of Raphael's commonly called the School of Athens. Below, in the foreground, the geometer and the geographer and other pursuers of earthly arts are seen plying their half-mechanical vocations, but the pyramid of figures rises through forms identified with higher and higher realms of thought, and culminates with divine philosophy in the persons of Plato and Aristotle. The picture hangs there to remind the delver in the earth of the heights to which others may ultimately carry the materials and the thoughts of which he is the humble purveyor.

Sometimes, it must be confessed, it seems a far cry from the immediate work of the day to its final uses, from the editing of documents or the listing of archives to the glowing—or if not glowing let us hope at least veracious—pages of the future historian. Long confinement at hard labor in the subterranean caverns of history may leave one out of touch with the world of sunlight. That close atmosphere has doubtless its particular dangers, its special diseases, like that caisson-disease which afflicts the subaqueous workers in compressed air. It is good for the mine-foreman and his gnomes to emerge occasionally into the fresh upper air, to see in what direction the winds of contemporary intellectual life are blowing, to look around at the structures into which the products of their delving are to enter.

In this belief I ask you to join me in considering, not so much the details of the work of

¹ Lecture before the Trustees of the Carnegie Institution of Washington, December 12, 1912.

my department, as the reason for its existence and the general direction which it should follow. I name as my subject "The Future Uses of History."

It is easy to say that prophecy is vain, and literary prophecy the most insecure of all. Twenty-two years before the French Revolution, David Hume declared that the writings of Rousseau had once for all been "consigned to perpetual neglect and oblivion." The same acute critic declared confidently that posterity would regard Home's "Douglas" as the chief of English tragedies. But reluctant as any historical student must be to assume the totally different functions of the prophet, it is not difficult to show that, if it is his business to occupy himself chiefly with the raw materials of history, he must inevitably try to peer forward somewhat into the future of the historical art. He has no other course. The "Guide to the Materials for American History in the Public Record Office of Great Britain," of which we published a volume the other day, is not intended for the benefit of the historian whose book is published to-day or to-morrow. It comes too late for him. He will say of it as the Abbe Vertot, author of a once famous "History of the Siege of Malta," said when new materials were shown him which upset his narrative before it was published, "Monsieur, mon siège est fait." Several years must pass before any considerable portion of the materials we have listed at the Public Record Office has been examined by historical students, still more years before the fresh facts in them have found their way into historical monographs or articles, still more before they are incorporated into the general histories.

In the field of history, indeed, the advancement of learning may be likened to the advance of an army. The workers in organized institutions of research must go before, like pickets or scouting parties making a reconnaissance. Then, after some interval, comes the light cavalry of makers of doctoral dissertations, then, the heavy artillery of writers of maturer monographs, both of them heavily encumbered with ammunition trains of bibliography and footnotes. Then comes the multitudinous infantry of readers and college students and school children, and finally, like sutlers and contractors hovering in the rear, the horde of those that make text-books. It may be twenty years before new facts discovered, or the elimination of ancient errors, find place in the historical books prepared for the general reader. At all events, the conductor of the reconnaissance must have his eye on the future, rather than the immediate, needs of his profession, and must constantly make such forecast of them as he can. And so he is, perforce, obliged to think of the Future Uses of History, not necessarily with ambitious straining toward an impossible degree of foresight, but at least with sober endeavor to see what can be seen.

As human life in the future will be partly like human life in the past and partly different, so the usefulness of history to future purposes will be partly the same as it has hitherto manifested and partly different. First, leaving aside for the moment all its applications, its independent value as a discipline will surely never cease. The severity of its methods, its

merciless sifting and dissection, and comparison of human statements, will always make it the invaluable foe of credulity, the steady propagator of that methodical doubt on which enlightenment so largely depends. It cannot fail to be in the future, as it has been in the past, one of the principal promoters of fairness of mind, that chief lubricant of human affairs. Indeed, in the graded schools beyond which only a small fraction of our population ever proceeds, it is the one study which teaches children anything of the minds and characters of their fellow-beings. These are important considerations, if we are willing to look out of our study-windows and to think of history, not as the property of a small guild of professional colleagues, but as the rightful heritage of millions. For my own part, I do not hesitate to say that in our country the chief use of history is to give young women—I say young women because young men will not read—to give American young women, earlier than life can give it, some knowledge of human nature.

But it will be said that these are vague considerations, on which it would be difficult to erect a program. As historians have usually construed their task, it has been to study, not simply human nature and the general course of its workings in actual life, but specifically the manner in which organized human nature has acted. Human beings have been organized in various ways, and many forms of history have been devised to correspond. Most conspicuously, they have been organized in political states, and political histories have, therefore, been the histories most abundantly written. But whatever the particular variety, the main reason for writing has lain in the conviction that from the history of an organization in the past one could learn what would be useful toward its guidance in the present and future.

History has risen or fallen in popularity as there has been greater or less belief that the past had valuable lessons to teach. If it is the nurse of statesmanship, if it is philosophy teaching by examples, if it shows the ways of God to man, it is well worth pursuing. In the days between the Reformation and the Peace of Westphalia it was so regarded. "Histories make men wise," said Lord Bacon. "To despise them," said Luther, "is not only a coarse Tartaric and Cyclopean barbarism, but also a devilish senselessness, whereby the devil would more and more extinguish the right knowledge of God." Never, on the other hand, did the esteem of history sink lower than in France in the time of the Revolution, when, it was held, old things had passed away and all things had become new, and the politician's great duty was to cut loose from the abhorred and despised past of the Middle Ages and bring the Golden Age into immediate existence.

"The world's great age begins anew,
The golden years return;
The earth doth like a snake renew
Her winter weeds outworn;
Heaven smiles, and faiths and empires gleam
Like wrecks of a dissolving dream."

On the whole, however, men have speedily returned to the opinion, and we may expect them to adhere to

it, that history has much light to cast on the problems of statesmanship. It is easy to say that no two ages or countries, no two states of society, no two combinations of events, are ever precisely alike. No doubt one of the chief uses of history itself is to prevent us from being taken in by historical parallels. Caesar had his Brutus and Charles I his Cromwell, but in a modern historical seminar, Patrick Henry would find difficulty in proving that all that had anything to do with George III.

But that history can be misused is no argument that it is useless. Its lessons are not ready in tabloids, predigested for immediate consumption by the inquiring statesman. Its oracles require interpretation, or modification to fit new circumstances. No two cases in history are alike. But no two voyages are alike, yet we prefer a skipper who has voyaged before. No two political campaigns are alike, but it is not customary to trust the management of a new candidacy to one who has never before gone through a political campaign. So of the nation or the race. John Selden put the matter rightly. The passage is in his *History of Tythes*:

"The neglect or only vulgar regard of the fruitful and precious part of it [antiquity] which gives necessary light to the present in matter of state, law, history, and the understanding of good authors, is but preferring that kind of ignorance which our short life alone allows us before the many ages of former experience and observation, which may so accumulate years to us as if we had lived even from the beginning of time."

As we are helped in respect to shaping our personal course into the future by all the various knowledge of mankind that we have gained by the experience of life, some of it knowledge that we could state in formal propositions, some of it knowledge that lies implicit in our minds as the foundation of tact, so the uses of history to the public man or to the voter lie partly in formulated conclusions or opinions, partly in less tangible gains—in a heightened sense of what is expedient for man, or for the particular nation or community whose history one has tried to understand, in a more acute judgment as to what will succeed. At the basis of our confidence lies the belief, which the last half-century's studies have converted into settled doctrine, that the whole civilization of the present has its roots deep in the past, and can never be understood except by entering deeply into the study of origins. The stream of history is a stream of causation. The spacious fabric that lies before us, woven for us on the roaring loom of time, gray and dull in some lights or aspects, shot with gleams of splendor when seen in others, is composed of threads drawn from every age of the past.

Not one of these influences or survivals can be rightly understood except by considering its entire setting, and thus we are led into the study of all past ages. The Balkan situation of 1912 demands for its sympathetic comprehension not only a close study of ethnological characters in some of the most intricately mixed populations of Europe, but a knowledge of five hundred years of Turkish history, a thousand years

of Bulgarian and Servian history, more than sixteen hundred of Rumanian and Greek. The American negro, the Russian Jew, the many other ethnic elements which go to make up our wonderfully composite population, each requires the patient mastery of a separate history for its proper understanding.

History must be studied in order that we may comprehend how the evolution of human elements and institutions has been brought about, a process radically different from the evolution of animal forms, and consisting mostly in changes of place, in the replacing of one generation by another, and above all in the substitution of new habits of action and thought for earlier ones. But if this were all, the American would have little need to study any but American history, and, in lessening degree as he went backward, those ages of European history from which concrete and definite elements have passed over into the American fabric.

In reality there are two ways in which history enables us to understand the present, and the tracing of origins and transmissions and survivals is but one of them. There is a sense in which we know things only by comparison, can know the present state of civilization in any country only as we appreciate how and wherein it might have been different. Many a statement as to cause and effect in the evolution of society in any given country can be exploded or modified by a glance at the differing manner in which the same forces have worked out under differing circumstances elsewhere. Much of what we deem to have been logically inevitable in the history of the feudalism of the Middle Ages in Europe is seen not to have been true of Japanese feudalism. The elaborate civilizations of Greece and Rome deserve the child's attention, among other reasons, precisely because they are not those of the generations immediately preceding and leading up to his own. There is a provincialism in respect to time as narrowing as the provincialism of space, and one of the chief uses of history is to guard us from it.

The platform orator confidently puts forward the protective tariff as the true source of American high wages. You may give him pause if you point out to him that American wages were high before there was a protective tariff. Henry Wansey, a Wiltshire clothier, who traveled about the United States before even the act of 1790 could have had much effect, declares his belief that manufactures could not succeed in America because of the scarcity and high price of labor.

If not an orator, a highly oratorical historian, unfortunately much read, draws our attention to striking contrasts between the institutions of America and those of England, and urges us to believe that the origins of the former are in the main not English, but Dutch. We do not have an established church. Democratic equality prevails among us. We have a written constitution, a President, a legislature much differing from Parliament. Primogeniture is unknown among us. Deeds and mortgages are recorded in public offices. Our system of local government is simple. Religious liberty, the freedom of the press, the use of the written ballot, and the modern system

of prison management were all fully established in America long before they came into vogue in England. Therefore, says our writer, American institutions, at least these typical ones, must have come from some third country, to wit, from Holland. But a very little historical thinking leads us to ask whether Australia has ever been to any powerful degree subjected to the influences of the Dutch. Here also is a land without established churches, and in which religious liberty, freedom of the press, and democratic equality have long prevailed. The individual colonies, and the Commonwealth of Australia, have written constitutions. The organization of the colonial legislatures is of a more modern type than that of the legislature in England, and the system of local government is simpler. Primogeniture is unknown. The administration of prisons has been in accord with modern notions. The registration of land titles is more highly developed than in the United States, and the arrangements with regard to the written ballot are those which we have at last copied. Now if all these things are not and cannot be of Dutch origin in Australia, neither are they, in the main, in America. The simple truth, of course, is, that most of these differences between English and American institutions are most naturally explained as resulting from the widely different conditions presented by virgin soil, new settlement, absence of traditions, or other historic accidents.

Or again, our platform orator, perhaps, assures us that an antipathy of the white man toward the negro is a natural instinct, implanted by God in the white human breast, so that racial antagonisms are a part of the divine order of the universe. If our historical studies of the negro and of slavery have been confined to the United States and to the Anglo-Saxon, as unfortunately those studies too often are, we may see no course but to acquiesce in the orator's deductions. But if we are able to bring into the comparison the history of the negro in Brazil, where the sentiment alluded to does not exist, we shall see that it is not the fatal product of nature, but the deciduous fruit of history.

Now this use of history, to enrich our intelligence concerning what is before us by including alien institutions and remote civilizations in the circle of our thinking, by the comprehension of a wider variety of social and political forms and events than has underlain our own national development, is a use unaffected in the main by the changes which our own age or nation may undergo. The student of the political and social sciences—the economist, the philologist in the broader sense of that term, the student of legal and religious ideas—will never find direct observation of present phenomena sufficient for their purposes, but will continue in the future, as they have so largely done during the past fifty years, to seek in the rich laboratory of history the materials for sounder conclusions than to-day's phenomena alone can give.

But as to the other chief use of history, to show how the present world has come to be what it is, we must expect that, while remaining generically the

same, it shall take on new forms as the social complex changes. It need not surprise us if history once more transforms itself. It has done so again and again. Dr. Mark Pattison declared that history was one of the most ephemeral forms of literature. Without quite subscribing to this dictum, we may readily point out that since the Renaissance history, like other forms of literature, has had its well-defined phases, has passed through several distinct climates of ideas. First came the classicizing historians of the Renaissance, then the memoir-writers of the age of religious wars, then in each country the statesmen-historians of the early seventeenth century, then everywhere those giants of learning, prodigies of documentary collection and publication, who two hundred years ago were making the great age of erudition. Next came the philosophical historians of the school of Turgot and Hume, applying general ideas and ruling the mid-eighteenth century; then the eclipse of history by the French Revolution; then, in the period of Restoration and Romanticism, its return into the hands of statesmen and publicists; then the heyday of the critical school, the searchers of documents, the disciples of Ranke, to whose synagogue most of us still belong; and latterly, outside of Anglo-Saxondom at least, a new school of synthetic philosophers and sociological psychologists, speaking what to old ears seems a new language, quite as much the dialect of thermodynamics or of pathology as of history.

Generally speaking, these successive changes of attitude on the part of history have been conscious or unconscious attempts to adapt it to the uses of successive states of society. Every age has its own problems. Each looks to history for help in solving them, because it believes, as Burke said, that the individual's private stock of reason is too small to trade upon, and that he would do better to avail himself "of the general bank and capital of nations and of ages." But each asks its own questions of the oracle, and we are to expect that the next generation, the immediate future, will make other demands upon the records of the past than those which have been made by our own day and generation. If then we are working at all for the future, we must ask ourselves what the future will be like.

To such a question it is foolish to attempt an extensive or detailed reply. There is much, however, to convince us that, broadly speaking, we are approaching the end of one of the great epochs in human history and the beginning of another. The period which is ending has lasted somewhat more than four centuries. It may be called the era of great national states, as the five hundred years which preceded it may be called the era of small feudal states. Shortly before the discovery of America, powerful economic influences, aided by a group of vigorous and ambitious monarchs and statesmen, replaced feudal anarchy by centralized despotism, and welded the discordant fragments of mediaeval Europe into a dozen capacious, strong, and durable kingdoms. For four hundred years this has been the main form or mould in which Europe has been organized. For four hundred years the main subject of European history has

been the organized and separate doings of a dozen large nations and their mutual interaction. The peace of Europe seemed to lie in the balance of power among these national states.

But throughout most of these four centuries the conditions of life in western and central Europe changed comparatively little in things essential. Napoleon's army could not invade Italy with much greater celerity than that of Charles VIII under similar leadership might have done. The peasant of a Yorkshire village in 1789 had seen no more of Frenchmen than his predecessor of 1689. His parson had been educated by the same classics as the parson of a hundred years before, his militiaman used the same weapons, his shoemaker the same tools. Western Europe was in the main

"A sleepy land where under the same wheel
The same old rut would deepen year by year;
Where Aylmer follow'd Aylmer at the Hall
And Averill, Averill at the Rectory."

The Industrial Revolution has changed all that. Coal and iron and steam, the railroad and the steamboat and the telegraph, have knit all Europe together into one complex but compacted whole. Adrianople is nearer to St. James's Palace in 1912 than Calais was in 1800. Forty international congresses take place every year. More treaties are signed in a month than in the sixteenth century were signed in a decade. When France and Germany seem likely to be dragged into war by the conflict of financial and commercial interests in Morocco, the socialists of both countries organize simultaneous anti-militarist demonstrations, in which millions of workingmen take part, and warfare is averted. The peoples of Europe are usually in quite as close and cordial relations as those of the American States were in 1786.

In military, diplomatic, and some political aspects it may still be proper to think of Europe chiefly as a system of great national states. But in nearly every other aspect it is plain that the Age of Nations is approaching its end. The nation is ceasing to be the leading form of the world's structure; organizations transcending national boundaries are becoming more and more numerous and effective. We are advancing into a new world which will be marked by cosmopolitan thought and sentiment, by economic systems more and more socialistic in character, and by institutions increasingly internationalized; and signs are not wanting that among the historians of Europe there are those who will supply the new internationalized and socialistic Demos with the historical information which his new purposes will require.

Meantime it is equally true, though true under other forms, that for America also the last four hundred years have constituted a distinct era now coming to a close. It is the great and memorable era of free land. Hitherto free land has been our basis. "Land!" was the first cry of the storm-tossed mariners of Columbus. For three centuries the leading fact of American history has been that soon after 1600 a body of Europeans, mostly Englishmen, settled on the edge of the greatest piece of unoccupied

agricultural land in the temperate zone, and proceeded to subdue it to the uses of man. For three centuries the chief task of American mankind has been to go up westward against the land and to possess it. Our wars, our independence, our state building, our political democracy, our plasticity with respect to immigration, our mobility of thought, our ardor of initiative, our mildness and our prosperity, all are but incidents or products of this prime historical fact.

It has been a wonderful process. Future ages, remoter from it than we, will see more clearly the high poetic quality in this ceaseless pressure and surge of half-conscious millions, led forward by dim, high impulses to enter the promised land and to prepare it to be the chief home of civilized mankind. "By faith they sojourned in the land of promise, as in a strange country, dwelling in tabernacles," and "died in faith, not having received the promises, but having seen them afar off, and were persuaded of them, and embraced them, and confessed that they were strangers and pilgrims on the earth."

But all this, which has allied our simple annals with the Odyssey and the Book of Genesis, is now a closed or closing chapter. The era of free land is over. Practically all the usable agricultural land, except that which is also forested, has now passed out of the hands of the federal government. That government has disposed of two thousand million acres of public lands; but from 1900 to 1910 the total area of farms increased only four per cent. For nearly three centuries our prevailing practice was the ownership of the land by him that worked it, and our democracy rested largely on the opinion that this was the ideal régime; now three-eighths of our farms are operated by tenants. Half our population is now urban within the census definition, where in 1790 all but three per cent. was rural; meanwhile, our exports of manufactures have more than quadrupled in twenty years. In short, we have ceased, almost suddenly ceased, to be a new country—that is to say, a nation which has taken but the first steps in the subduing of nature to the uses of man—and have become an old country.

Can it be supposed that so great and so dramatic a transition, which has transformed the organization of our economic life and of our political parties, shall have no effect upon the questions which men ask concerning the past? Nothing can be more certain than that history must be prepared to respond to new demands. I do not think so ill of my profession as to suppose that American historians will not make gallant and intelligent attempts to meet the new requirements.

What sort of histories will a socialized and internationalized Europe desire? What information regarding the past will be demanded by a socialized, probably in some sense socialistic, America? Surely the old varieties of history will continue, partly because of human inertia, partly because they ought to continue. Even a world without kingdoms must know the history of kingdoms. Even the drum and trumpet historian, so much reprobated of late, has his place.

If we can thoroughly know the present only by contrast and comparison, if we are to steer clear of a provincial habit of mind respecting our own age, we shall think that wars and political machinations that have been important in their day are important in history. Because the automobile is becoming the leading feature of our scenery, we are not warranted in thinking that the one really important event in Napoleon's time was the invention of Trevethick's traction-engine.

Yet surely man will wish to know concerning the past a thousand things of which in former times annalists were incurious. Social and economic history will surely assume a greater place than political history. Where hitherto men have interrogated the past concerning the doings of generals and politicians, they will be more prone to interrogate it concerning the holdings of public and private land, the course of prices, the migrations of settlers and of crop-areas, the rise of trade-unions, the development of new religions, the status of the negro, the advance of education or of missions or of the spirit of toleration.

In an advancing world, the power of thought increases. We must expect that the men of the future will be more curious than we have been respecting the history of thought, of thought as manifested in philosophy and the advance of science, in religion and poetry, in industrial and social programs, in newspapers and the drama. A world that is increasingly ruled by public opinion will wish to know more of the history of public opinion. It will care more about the psychology of the Crusaders' motives than about their deeds of arms, more about the religion of the Visigoths than about the succession of their kings.

A socialized and internationalized Christendom will particularly desire light on the history of national character and of all that has gone to make it up.

The advocates of universal peace, whom it is customary in some quarters to stigmatize as "well-meaning," are not deceived in thinking that they have with them, on the whole, the mightiest forces of the new industrial world. It is profitable to modern business and to modern labor alike, to extend that sympathetic comprehension of nation by nation which makes warfare increasingly distasteful, and of that comprehension there is no better nourished than the study of history.

No doubt many questions will be asked of history which history cannot answer. Past ages have left record of such things only as seemed to them important. If the inventor of gunpowder or of paper could have foreseen its total significance, he would not have left us to grope so dimly in the search for its origins. It would interest us immeasurably to know the fact with certainty, if the decline of the Roman Empire was due to the spread of malaria, but we cannot find all the evidence we would. But the questioning will continue. History that is worth while will be pursued with increasing eagerness. Men will increasingly perceive that our ability to transform the world of society is enhanced by our sense of the transformations it has already undergone, our belief in the possibility of changing it.

These are some of the traits of history's usefulness in the future. These are some of the possibilities and probabilities concerning its development which ought to be borne in mind by those who plan for, and work in, an endowed department of historical research. Imperfect as our vision into the future is and must be, by using it as well as we can we shall be enabled better to serve the needs of the historians who shall come after us and enter into our labors. Comforted by this reflection we may retire once more into our subterranean caverns.

Use of the Lantern in History Classes

I.—A LETTER FROM PROFESSOR WILLIAM E. LINGELBACH, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

II.—PRACTICAL SUGGESTIONS, BY H. R. TUCKER, WILLIAM MCKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA,
PHILADELPHIA,
January 17, 1913.

Editor THE HISTORY TEACHER'S MAGAZINE:—

I can make only very inadequate answers to many of the questions raised in the communications from subscribers concerning the use of the lantern in connection with the teaching of history. In the first place, I take it that the use of illustrative material, especially that of lantern photographs, pictures, books, manuscripts, coins, ornaments, etc., projected on the screen, is so well established, and its value so well recognized that it requires no brief on my part.

I will therefore confine myself in the main to a statement of my experience in connection with the kind of illustrative material in connection with my own classes. From this, as well as from the experience of others, with whom I talked on the subject, I

am convinced that the lantern should never hold more than a secondary place in the class-room, serving to demonstrate or illustrate the ideas of the lecture. I do not believe the lantern should be used to furnish entertainment, or be made the occasion for a popular lecture in which the pictures furnish the subject matter as well as the thread of the discourse. This is the easy way to be sure, but the effective, as well as scientific use of the lantern, is a very different one; one in which it is brought frequently into play for a few moments, emphasizing through the eye the impression obtained through the ear, and furnishing additional food for thought at a time when the impressions are first made.

I am aware that this requires an equipment not always in the possession of the teacher, but even with a clumsy outfit, the end can be attained with very slight expenditure of time by an alert teacher who understands how to enlist the help of the class in case the

services of a janitor or assistant are not always available. In the well equipped lecture rooms of the universities there is, of course, little difficulty on this score. The throwing of a switch or the pulling of a lever that lowers the shades and darkens the room, artificial light being used for making notes, or where the illumination is very strong, sufficient daylight is admitted for the purpose. The lantern connections are equally simple, while the plan of the screen is often taken by a bare wall space specially prepared for the purpose. This is, of course, the ideal system! But, unfortunately, it is found only in our best equipped universities and city high schools. In these instances, too, the old-fashioned lantern is replaced by the up-to-date combination instrument which can be used alike for lantern slide, opaque, vertical, microscopic and polariscopic projection. In time, I suppose even the moving picture apparatus with its remarkable powers of reproducing historic events even in color will become a part of this equipment. The moving picture film is an historic record that cannot be neglected by the future historian, as the recent reproductions of the Coronation and the Durbar show very conclusively, and the question of introducing this kind of source into the class-room becomes, therefore, solely a matter of expediency. Two years ago I was much impressed during a visit to one of the best seminars at a leading German university to hear a learned discussion by professor and students of certain dialects on the basis of phonograph records. The results were marvelous. After the session, the director entertained us with specimens of English by noted actors, statesmen and provincials, and a few examples of "American."

I fear, however, that even excluding the phonograph and cinematograph, the equipment described is available for constant use only for history teachers in our best endowed institutions. At the same time, most up-to-date schools and colleges have at least one large room thoroughly equipped in this way. Where this is the case, there is no department that can make better use occasionally of such a room for purposes of review or for special lectures than the department of history.

But inability to have the best and most up-to-date outfit is no reason for having none at all. In such cases the simple old-fashioned lantern which can be purchased at very reasonable rates, should be a part of every history class-room, just as much as are its maps and blackboards. Many history teachers have been accustomed to get on with a text-book and a map or two for so long that a tradition seems to have established itself that we need no equipment. The science departments have, for years, been asking for, and getting, as a matter of necessity, chemicals, tubes, retorts, microscopes, specimens, etc., for laboratory work. But for some reason the claims of the laboratory method in history, while accepted in theory as excellent, still suffer from an inexplicable lack of recognition of the fact that it requires an adequate equipment of books, maps, lantern and often special rooms. To do the best work we must have these. Teachers of history are over modest in their demands. for-

getting, apparently, that school officials and the public regard the teacher who appreciates the importance of his particular subject, and insists, within reason, upon adequate equipment, as wide-awake and worthy of encouragement.

The question of the best lantern, room, screen, slides, etc., is so largely determined by local conditions that it would be unprofitable to discuss it in a general way. The optical firms of all our large cities have lanterns and are always glad to give information as to the best machines.¹ As a rule, they also carry a stock of lantern slides² such as they are, and against which a word of warning is necessary. As a rule, these are worse than valueless from the history teacher's standpoint. The selection of subjects is often accidental or the result of the chance interest of some untrained amateur who hasn't the slightest notion of historical evidence. Indeed, most of the collections are made to interest and entertain the general public, hence, fancy pictures in lurid hues, with much action, but which are misleading because untrue. Of course, there are exceptions. There are in this country and abroad collections of slides that are excellent, but even with these the prospective buyer should never order by catalogue without obtaining the right to return such slides as he may reject. It is an arrangement that the best firms willingly make, and while it takes a little time, it protects the teacher, not only against poor slides, but also against fancy and worthless pictures.

By the latter, I mean slides that are worthless as source material. Many teachers ruthlessly reject as trash anything that is not in some way contemporary and first hand. Lantern slides to be of real service to the work in history should be selected with great care just as the collections of original sources and historical readings have been made. Only authentic material should be admitted. In the case of historic portraits, for example, the name of the artist with the date, if from a painting, should always be a part of the legend on the slide itself. Pictures of manuscripts, facsimiles, etc., take care of themselves, pictures of historic places and scenes, if since the days of photography, are usually satisfactory. For periods before, care should always be exercised in knowing the artist or the source of the picture. A very good way to get a good working collection is to have slides made from the illustrated historical books where the copyright no longer imposes restriction. Indeed,

¹For Philadelphia and neighborhood, Williams, Brown and Earle, 918 Chestnut Street; W. H. Rau, Camac Street, may be mentioned; for New York, McAllister, 40 Nassau Street.

²Catalogues can be had for the asking. McAllister's is large and the slides are good. Among foreign houses, with whom I have had satisfactory dealings, are Edward Liesegang, Volmerswerther Str., Düsseldorf (this firm has nearly 175,000 negatives); Wood, London, England; and Moltein, Paris. Levy, 113 Boulevard Sébastopol, Paris, who makes slides from photographs, pictures, etc., furnished them at the very reasonable rate of thirty cents, the usual cost is fifty or sixty, while the price of a slide in the trade varies from thirty to forty cents.

when purely for one's own class-room use, there is no valid objection to using the illustrations in any of the historical works bearing on the subject. The highly-developed picture postal cards are often excellent. Where the reflectoscope forms a part of the equipment they can be reflected on the screen; where this is not the case, lantern slides are readily made. There are, for example, whole series of postcards from French and German archives, giving authentic portraits, with parts of important documents and autograph signatures. Two that come to my mind at this writing are the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, with signature of Louis XIV, and the order for the execution of Marie Antoinette, signed by the public prosecutor, Tongue Tinvile, with a small engraving of the scene at the guillotine just before the execution. Excellent opportunities are afforded the teacher of local history. It is surprising how effectively the history of some localities can be illustrated by means of lantern photographs brought together by an enterprising teacher. If done with research and care, slides like these are invaluable.

For social and economic history, the lantern affords a peculiar opportunity. Old methods of manufacture, agriculture and transportation, contrast most strikingly when placed by the side of those of our own day, or better still when shown in a series setting forth the successive steps in the evolution to the present. In this connection the device of having two pictures on the same slide should be mentioned. I have, for example, a slide with two Renaissance palaces, the Strozzi of Florence and the Vendramini of Venice. After having previously brought out by a study of the constitutions and narrative history of the two cities, the difference between the civic life of the two cities, the stormy violent development of Florence and the quiet peaceful conditions in Venice, it is a simple matter to have the student develop from the two pictures the fact that the conditions determine the architecture, and that architectural remains in turn are to the historian a record of equal value with constitutions on the one hand and contemporary accounts of events on the other. At the same time the slide affords the opportunity for a review of the characteristics of Renaissance architecture. The use of two or more objects on the screen at the same time is equally effective in teaching territorial changes as, for example, maps of Germany in 1815, 1867 and 1870, or of the Balkans, as arranged by the treaty of San Stefano, on the one hand, and by the Congress of Berlin, on the other.

It seems to me, Mr. Editor, that an exchange of ideas along the line of our respective experiences would be of considerable value in helping to round out and complete the somewhat scrappy information most of us at present have on the subject. I would like to see, for example, some reliable figures as to the cost of installing a lantern and modest collection of slides for a secondary school course in history; the cost of having slides made and the name and address of persons who make a business of such work; the best collections in the trade in Ancient, in Mediaeval and in Modern History, etc.; the law of copyright in its

relation to illustrations and the making of lantern photographs; the possibility of suggestive and approved lists of slides in different fields, or, better still, an arrangement with some business house by which collections based upon such lists could be made or kept in stock. In this way the cost of an equipment adaptable to the needs of particular schools could be definitely determined, and I am convinced that many teachers of history could then obtain the necessary apparatus for this side of their work, which now seems quite out of reach because of the vagueness of their own knowledge of the subject.

The Reflectoscope

By H. R. TUCKER, MCKINLEY HIGH SCHOOL, ST. LOUIS, MO.

A very effective aid to the study of the various periods of history and of the other social sciences is the stereopticon, or, better, the reflectoscope, which is the opaque projector and stereopticon combined. This latter machine is sometimes called the "balopticon," a special trade name given to it by the Bausch & Lomb Company, Rochester, N. Y. Every high school of any size at all should have a special room fitted up with such a machine for the use of all classes. If it has a microscope attachment, the convertible balopticon can be used in almost every subject, and will prove to be a piece of high school equipment more widely used than almost any other. The expense of this equipment should be considered in the total cost of a building just as much as any other apparatus. The larger high schools can afford to allow the history classes a machine for their exclusive use, though this is not absolutely necessary. The "convertible balopticon," with all accessories (Bausch & Lomb catalogue, number 4165) is listed at \$200. This is a very serviceable and durable machine for slides and opaque projection. The catalogue lists other machines much cheaper and others more expensive. There are other companies dealing in opaque projectors and stereopticons, such as Erker (St. Louis), and Thompson (Boston), but Bausch & Lomb make a specialty of such machines. That machine is most serviceable which provides for the placing of the picture in a horizontal position, as the pictures will be of many different sizes, and a frame for each one, if they have to be placed in a vertical position, would be out of the question. Any high school contemplating the purchase of an opaque projector should send to one of the above companies for their "query" sheet, so as to record data as to distance from screen to lantern, form of illuminant, carrying capacity of electric current, etc. The windows should have additional curtains of dark material, placed between the regular curtains and the windows, shutting out every possibility of the admission of light. This is especially necessary for opaque projection, where the results are more effective the darker the room. A piece of heavy bleached sheeting adjusted in place by pulleys would do for the screen, though the regular roller curtain material on a roller

is more convenient. The screen should be about eight feet by ten feet, for a room thirty feet in depth.

In order to show the wide range of the use of the balopticon, here is a list of various talks based upon pictures and maps cut from magazines and newspapers: England in the nineteenth century, Napoleon and the early part of the nineteenth century, Russia-Japanese war, China, Japan, European colonization in Africa, phases of development and items of interest in civics and in economics. Much of this can be illustrated through slides, but most of the material of current character can be obtained only from newspapers and magazines, such as: English-Russian sphere of influence in Persia, old and new educational institutions in China, women voting in Colorado, diagrammatic representation of gerrymandering, diagrammatic representation of decrease in purchasing power of money, "A Mayor vs. the Middleman," railroad development in Africa and in China, opening of postal savings bank in New York city, "House of Governors," cartoons on the present campaign, etc. This list should not give the impression that the courses are made interesting at the expense of mental discipline and historical development; yet, this illustrative material does serve to impress the graphic and human elements of the social sciences, besides often furnishing information not obtainable any other way. The material for the earlier periods of history can generally be gotten from many publishers of pictures—such as Perry, Brown, etc.—and are often better than slides, and much cheaper; though good slides, that is, slides true to the facts, are more desirable.

But in the later, and especially in the present or current period of historical development, pictures and diagrams from magazines and newspapers are the only source. I remember well my disappointment over a set of slides on China, which I had procured on short notice; when I came to throw them on a screen, before the audience, I found that they depicted scenes of the China of twenty-five years ago, instead of the new China, which would have been truthfully portrayed through a collection of pictures which I had made. Slides can be had from such companies as McAllister (N. Y.), Underwood & Underwood (N. Y.), McIntosh (Chicago), Erker (St. Louis), Rau (Philadelphia). I should be glad to know of other companies. As to the kind of pictures that can be used in the opaque projector: the less dark or black the picture, the better the results; though if the room is absolutely darkened, and the full current is turned on—which, of course, is not necessary in the use of slides—the results are just as clear as with slides, including the printing. The pupils always look forward to the lantern talks with enthusiasm. The purpose should not be to entertain, but, if incidentally entertainment is provided along with informational and disciplinary results, no pedagogical rule has been violated; rather, the maintenance of the child's interest, a fundamental condition to mental development, has been obtained. Often during the talk or lecture, the map or picture or tabulation thrown on the screen can be made the basis of questioning; and, later, in an informal way, reference by questions can be made to the illustrations.

The Most Effective Factors in the Teaching of History

BY A. DUNCAN YOCUM, PROFESSOR OF PEDAGOGY, UNIVERSITY OF PENNSYLVANIA.

The term "method" as used in connection with teaching has come to have a fixed association with specific pedagogical schemes which represent the results of individual practice, and which teachers in general can accept or reject, as they individually please. In the teaching of history in particular, with its varied selection of subject matter and broad aims, individualism reigns supreme. It is in the belief, however, that a body of specialists who have been analytic enough to plan a model course of study, may be willing to carry over the same analytic method to another field of research, that this article is written.

In coöperation with the United States Bureau of Education, I am seeking to determine the present status of that phase of educational research which is beginning to concern itself with the relative efficiency of the various factors involved in teaching the several academic branches. The object of the inquiry is three fold: to learn of any experiments which have been tried, to gain the aid of experts in formulating the experimental problem as a whole, and to disseminate information concerning experiments and their results with a view both to increasing the efficiency of instruction and to stimulating further experimentation.

The first step toward both formulation and experimentation is analysis. The pedagogical expert can analyze his general facts and principles into specific propositions which have potential bearing upon the teaching of every branch. But, without the aid of the academic specialist, he cannot go very far toward analyzing the aims and subject matter of a particular school subject into the details, whose connection with the details reached by pedagogical analysis, results in a multitude of experimental problems.

In the field of history, the factors of pedagogic method have not as yet been investigated. The way for analysis has been made straight, however, through continual discussion of historical aims and values. With the following list of experiments as a tentative example of the line of research which must be developed, it is hoped that teachers of history will report on any experiments in method which they have individually tried, and collectively suggest all problems which should be inductively solved. The essential condition to a valid experiment is the variation of a single factor or detail of method, while all other conditions are kept as constant as possible. Although this condition is met in the few problems selected for illustration from the lengthy list already formulated,

it is unlikely that the purpose of the paper will be fully met without the publication of the list as a whole.

EXPERIMENTAL PROBLEMS IN THE TEACHING OF HISTORY.

1. *Grouping.* Effect of:

1.2 Exact location of useful facts or events by year, month and day of the month vs. general association with many-sided epochs, reigns or events.

1.2 (Continued.) More exact location as detailed knowledge of a period or epoch increases vs. equally exact location when knowledge is more limited and general.

1.9 The association of a continually recurring historical event with a group of factors or conditions in such general form that they will serve to outline it as often as it recurs. For example, war, with causes remote and immediate, general sequence of events, results and effect on the course of history; or settlement, with cause of leaving mother country, reason for settling in the new, incidents of voyage, means of support, relation with natives, success or failure, etc.

2. *Gradation.* The effect of:

2.3 The adequate memorizing and review of the meaning of essential, but unfamiliar, historical terms during the year preceding their use vs. their mastery as they are needed. For example, the advance study of such terms as matchlock, clearing, settler, etc., before taking up the colonial period in American history.

3. *Form of Repetition.* Effect of:

3.1 Expression of ideas or description of characters or events in such verbal or literary form as to strongly appeal to the emotions as they are impressively read to the pupils vs. their being read to the pupils in matter of fact form.

3.3 Such visualizing of historical characters and events through picture, stereograph, moving picture, drama or pageant as will most fully and graphically represent the originals vs. matter of fact description or purely verbal descriptions which appeal to the visual.

3.7 The seeing and hearing of a historical drama or the dramatization of some historical event vs. the hearing or reading of a description that is not dramatic.

3.13 The association of a historical event involving location or change in location, with its representation on a colored chart or map vs. mere reference to location or change of location.

3.14 The association of territorial change in successive periods with proportionately colored charts vs. mere description of change. If such

graphic location is effective, should it not be limited to the few cases where exact location is useful?

4. *Interval in Repetition.* The effect of:

4.1 Repetition in sequence vs. repetition after an interval in the initial memorizing of historical names, facts or groups of facts.

4.2 Varying intervals in the review of historical names, facts or groups of facts when once they have been memorized.

4.3 The effect upon intervals of review of varying the amount of repetition or form of presentation for historical names, facts and groups of facts in the period of initial memorizing and review. That is, the effect upon retention of initial "thoroughness."

5. *Conditions Favorable to General Discipline.* The effect of:

5.5 The certain association with a general idea of a few highly useful applications as typical of others. For example, the certain association with a broken connection between an army and its base of supplies of some one impressive siege, some noteworthy blockading of sea ports, the desolation of fertile provinces to prevent some great invasion, etc., as types of all similar occurrences; or of the doctrine of equal rights with trial by jury as an example of equality before the law.

5.7 Certain association of the historical idea or group with all facts and terms essential to its identification in the most useful fields of application. For example, duty, *ad valorem*, etc., for the application of obedience to law in the importing of goods, and legal residence, registration, naturalization papers, voting on age, etc., for the application of equal rights in the field of suffrage.

5.13 The habit of trying to discover new applications.

Obviously, these and similar problems can be finally solved only by expert investigators, trained in the peculiar methods essential to this phase of research, and through experiments involving large enough groups of pupils to eliminate individual variation. Meanwhile, all definite comparisons between the work of parallel classes taught by methods identical in all but the single factor tested, will be of value. If reports upon all such work, together with suggested problems for experimentation are sent the writer, either through the Division of School Hygiene, United States Bureau of Education, or directly to College Hall, University of Pennsylvania, Philadelphia, they will be carefully examined and classified, and, if found available, published with due credit to the sender. Without such coöperation, as is being requested, between academic specialists and pedagogical investigators, the relative efficiency of the factors which govern individual instruction and class teaching will remain undetermined.

The Teaching of the History of Art

BY LAURA H. CARNELL, LITT. D., TEMPLE UNIVERSITY, PHILADELPHIA.

The races of mankind have written the records of their thoughts and actions in many ways, upon many materials. Succeeding generations have found it to their advantage to try to understand these records that they might spare themselves the labor of working out again all the already solved problems of the race, and thus have the leisure and the understanding to take up new or more advanced problems that might carry their generation a little further towards the days of complete enlightenment.

Sometimes the writings on these records have been hard to decipher. Sometimes, for long centuries, they have been undecipherable. Sometimes, through long periods, they have been buried from sight. Much has been entirely lost, but much remains, written in many moods and expressed through various mediums. The historian cannot rest content to study only one type of record, for it cannot give him the whole story. He has learned to read the hieroglyphics of Ancient Egypt, but the face painted upon the mummy case of one of Egypt's kings tells him more truly what manner of man this Egyptian was than many pages of manuscript. The bas-reliefs of Assyria tell us truly what manner of men were they who ruled in the valley of the Euphrates. The secret of their power and the cause of their failure are spread before us. The geologist told the historian many things of primitive man, but his rude drawings in the caves of the Pyrenees threw an entirely new light on the cave dwellers of Western Europe. Long before the Greeks had a written language much of their story was recorded on their pottery or molded into their figurines. The whole story of Philip IV and his court is told by Velasquez. The Alhambra is the obituary of the Moors; the Escorial the autobiography of Philip the Second and his Spain.

We can come face to face with the men of Venice by an acquaintance with Titian and Veronese. In Veronese's "Last Supper," in the Academy of Venice, his contemporaries with himself are the disciples, and he meant no irreverence.

Every phase of religious thinking, every thought, every need, every act of mankind has been recorded by those who could best express themselves by the builder's tools, the sculptor's instruments, or the painter's brush or pencil. Yet these records have had but comparatively little systematic study.

E. Baldwin Smith, A.M., Fellow in Art and Archaeology of Princeton University, sent out a questionnaire, asking for information concerning the study of the history of Art in the Universities and Colleges of the United States. The report published as the result of these inquiries may be somewhat incomplete because of neglect on the part of some to fill out the blanks sent them. The complaint of the incompleteness of this report has come almost exclusively from the departments of Greek and Archaeology where some instruction in Greek Art and Archaeology is

generally given. Otherwise, the report is a pretty complete summary. In four hundred institutions of learning having four years' courses in the Liberal Arts, only sixty-eight give adequate art courses. The History of Art as such is taught in only thirty, Greek Art in twenty-five, Ancient Art in nineteen, Mediaeval Art in seventeen. The total number of courses given in art, architecture, sculpture, painting, design, ornament, etc., is over four hundred. The majority of these courses are in Greek and Roman Art and Archaeology, and are generally given in connection with and by the professors in these departments.

If the study of architecture, sculpture and painting is so important a help in interpreting the life and thinking of the ancient Greeks and Romans, why is it not a very important help in understanding any period that has produced it? It is true the history teacher has turned from time to time in a desultory way to the architect, the sculptor, the painter, to illustrate his text, but rarely has he studied these records closely to get at the meaning of the period he is trying to understand, and more rarely still has he sent his students to them.

When Michael Angelo painted his "Holy Family," he reflected the humanism of the time and country in which he lived. The Madonna is like unto the creative goddess Gaea; the Child might well be the infant Jove. But Velasquez gives us the Christ of the Column which could, in his time, only be painted in the most Catholic country of Europe.

The work of Millet and the Barbizon School was not a happening. Neither was the work of William Morris and his contemporaries. Both were expressing the thoughts and feelings of their time. We puzzle long over a printed page when often the painted record would tell us the story at a glance.

The Catholic Church has ever appreciated the value of the carved or painted story. From the crude realism of the pictures in the catacombs to the idealism of Raphael, from the sad-faced, angular madonnas of the Byzantines to the Peita of Angelo the church found its greatest help in keeping before the people the wonderful lessons the Bible could teach, and the story of the Christ, who was to help mankind work out its deliverance, the Christ who can no longer be confined in temples, but has taken His place in the hearts of men, compelling them to move about over the face of the earth trying to do good.

In this long account of the church and the truths it tried to tell in pictured story, we can read very fully its history, and in the heart of each one of us can probably be found some picture, some figure, gathered from this record that has fixed there forever some great truth. But art has been more than a recorder of historic facts, or even an interpreter of religious truths. It is the record of man's attempt to express his desire for beauty, for perfection. It is a record of the inspirations of mankind.

His longing for beauty, for perfection, is as truly fundamental as his desire for food or his need of religion. He has tried to express this longing in many ways, but not the least of this expression has been through architecture, sculpture and painting. This longing for beauty, for perfection, is the godlike part of man's nature; it connects him with the Creator, from whom he came, and to whom he hopes to return. If to some has been given the power to express these reachings out towards perfection through the great arts, it is also given to them to express themselves in a language all can read, regardless of country, clime or speech. These works are written in a universal language. If this is true, it is strange that any educational scheme aiming to give culture and broad knowledge should be deemed complete that does not give to every student a chance to study these records in a systematic way.

The Greeks lived, and thought, and talked beauty. They surrounded themselves with it. In the Renaissance, even the simplest household utensil was made artistic. The principles and the history of art were as familiar to the apprentice in the shop as to the Pontiff on his throne. The Greeks and the people of the Renaissance have left behind them a trail of glory.

America has overcome many of the obstacles that met it as an undeveloped country, and is welding together more or less successfully the many elements from many lands that have entered into the making of the new nation. It has attained to great material wealth. It is beginning to gather together by means of this wealth the products of the high thinking of great artists of many lands, as well as of its own. The crowds pass before them, and something of their meaning enters into their soul, and they are better for the contact. Working men and working women, with

little time for the cultivation of their artistic natures passed reverently before Rodin's "Hand of God" when it was first on exhibition in one of the upper galleries of the Metropolitan Museum. But some knowledge of Rodin, his influence upon his times, his relation to the art expression that perhaps is already beginning to succeed him, ought to be a part of the liberal education of at least every college man and woman.

The further evolution of our American nation will be very much influenced by the thinking and doing of our college men and women. If we are going to try to advance to better living, if we are going to try to banish ugliness from our living, if we are going to try to make all things fair, would it not be well to give our college students at least the opportunity to study in an orderly way the ideals of the ages as they have been revealed in the great works of architecture, sculpture, painting? The student who tries to understand the Parthenon or Amiens; Praxiteles or Michael Angelo; Raphael or Augusté Rodin as expressions of the highest ideals of their respective Ages, will know those ages better, and will draw from them more of religion, more of philosophy, more of history, than they can possibly obtain if left to the records of the written page alone.

Art languishes in times of war or of civil strife, in days of degeneracy or during formative periods when the struggle for existence must be hard. But whenever peace has reigned and men have had time and the desire to think on beauty, wonderful civilizations have evolved. Has not the time now come when Americans ought to be thinking more on these things, and is the time not here when the history of Art can at least be given as a part of every college course?

A Journey to Ohio in 1810

FROM THE DIARY OF MARGARET VAN HORN DWIGHT.

Riding across the State of Pennsylvania on a train which covers the distance from New York to Pittsburgh in ten hours, and furnishes the passenger with all the conveniences of a first-class hotel, I took from my bag a small gray-covered volume entitled "A Journey to Ohio in 1810," by Margaret Van Horn Dwight, edited by Max Farrand. Seating myself comfortably, I read Miss Dwight's account of her trip from Connecticut to Ohio, of how she spent six weeks on the way, and of the almost unbelievable hardships to which she was subjected. So vivid was the contrast which one century had made in the conditions of travel,—between my heavily upholstered Pullman chair, and the real physical dangers of 1810—that I could not but wish every history teacher might have the same realization. By the kind permission of the editor of the *Journal*, and of the publishers, the following extracts are here given.*—A. E. McK.

* "A Journey to Ohio in 1810," by Margaret Van Horn Dwight, edited by Max Farrand (Yale Historical Manuscripts) Yale University Press. Price, \$1.00

... I never will go to New Connecticut with a Deacon again, for we put up at every byeplace in the country to *save expence*—It is very grating to my pride to go into a tavern & furnish & cook my own provision—to ride in a wagon &c &c—but that I can possibly get along with—but to be oblig'd to pass the night in such a place as we are now in, just because it is a little cheaper, is more than I am willing to do—I should even rather drink clear rum out of the wooden bottle after the deacon has drank & wip'd it over with his hand, than to stay here another night—The house is very small & very dirty—it serves for a tavern, a store, & I should imagine hog's pen stable & every thing else—The air is so impure I have scarcely been able to swallow since I enter'd the house—The landlady is a fat, dirty, ugly looking creature, yet I must confess very obliging—She has a very suspicious countenance & I am very afraid of her—She seems to be master, as well as mistress & storekeeper, & from the great noise she has been making directly under me for this half hour, I suspect she has been "stoning the raisins & watering the

rum"—All the evening there has been a store full of noisy drunken fellows, yet M^r Wolcott could not be persuaded to bring in but a small part of the baggage, & has left it in the waggon before the door, as handy as possible—Miss W's trunk is in the bar-room unlock'd the key being broken today—it contains a bag of money of her father's, yet she could not persuade him to bring it up stairs—I feel so uneasy I cannot sleep & had therefore rather write than not this hour—some one has just gone below stairs after being as I suppos'd in bed this some time—for what purpose I know not—unless to go to our trunks or waggon—the old woman, (for it was her who went down,) tells me I must put out my candle so good night. . . . Our room is just large enough to contain a bed a chair & a very small stand—our bed has one brown sheet & one pillow—the sheet however appear'd to be clean, which was more than we got at Nash's—there we were all oblig'd to sleep in the same room without curtains or any other screen—and our sheets there were so dirty I felt afraid to sleep in them. . . . The men have been swearing & laughing in the store under me this hour—and the air of my room is so intolerable, that I must quit my writing to go in search of some that is *breathable*—I don't know how far I shall be oblig'd to go for it—but there is none very near I am certain—Having a few moments more to spare before we set out, with my book still in my lap, I hasten to tell you we found everything perfectly safe, & I believe I wrong'd them all by suspicions—The house by day light looks worse then ever—every kind of thing in the room where they live—a chicken half pick'd hangs over the door—pots, kettles, dirty dishes, potatoe barrels—and every thing else—and the old woman—it is beyond my power to describe her—but she & her husband & both very kind & obliging—it is as much as a body's life is worth to go near them. . . .

"What is every body's business is no body's" for instance—it is nobody's business where we are going, yet every body enquires—every toll gatherer & child that sees us—I am almost discouraged—we shall never get to New Connecticut or any where else, at the rate we go on—We went but eleven miles yesterday & 15 to day—Our Waggon wants repairing & we were oblig'd to put up for the night at about 3 o'clock. . . . As I said before I will never go with a Deacon again—for we go so slow & so cheap, that I am almost tir'd to death. The horses walk, walk hour after hour while Mr. W sits *reckoning his expenses* & forgetting to drive till some of us ask when we shall get there?—then he remembers the longer we are on the road the more *expensive* it will be, & whips up his horses—and when Erastus the son, drives, we go still slower for fear of hurting the horses. . . .

I can wait no longer to write you, for I have a great deal to say—I should not have thought it possible to pass a Sababth in our country among such a dissolute vicious set of wretches as we are now among—I believe at least 50 dutchmen have been here to day to smoke, drink, swear, pitch cents, almost dance, laugh & talk dutch & stare at us—They come in, in

droves young & old—black & white—women & children—It is dreadful to see so many people that you cannot speak to or understand—They are all high dutch, but I hope not a true specimen of the Pennsylvanians generally—Just as we set down to tea, in came a dozen or two of women, each with a child in her arms, & stood round the room—I did not know but they had come in a body to claim me as one of their kin, for they all resemble me—but as they said nothing to me, I concluded they came to see us *Yankees*, as they would a learned pig—The women dress in striped linsey woolsey petticoats & short gowns not 6 inches in length—they look very strangely—The men dress much better. . . . first I will describe our last nights lodging—Susan & me ask'd to go to bed—and Mrs W spoke to M^r Riker the landlord—(for no woman was visible)—So he took up a candle to light us & we ask'd M^{rs} W to go up with us, for we did not dare go alone—when we got into a room he went to the bed & open'd it for us, while we were almost dying with laughter, & then stood waiting with the candle for us to get into bed—but M^{rs} W—as soon as she could speak, told him she would wait & bring down the candle & he then left us—I never laugh'd so heartily in my life—Our bed to sleep on was straw, & then a feather bed for covering—The pillows contain'd nearly a single handful of feathers, & were cover'd with the most curious & dirty patchwork, I ever saw—We had one bedquilt & one sheet—I did not undress at all, for I expected dutchmen in every moment & you may suppose slept very comfortably in that expectation—M^r & M^{rs} W, & another woman slept in the same room—When the latter came to bed, the man came in & open'd her bed also, after we were all in bed in the middle of the night, I was awaken'd by the entrance of three dutchmen, who were in search of a bed—I was almost frightened to death—but M^r W at length heard & stopt them before they had quite reach'd our bed—Before we were dress'd the men were at the door—which could not fasten, looking at us—I think *wild Indians* will be less terrible to me, than these creatures—Nothing vexes me more than to see them set & look at us & talk in dutch and laugh—Now for our ride—After we left Mansfield, we cross'd the longest hills, and the worst road, I ever saw—two or three times after riding a little distance on turnpike, we found it fenced across & were oblig'd to turn into a wood where it was almost impossible to proceed—large trees were across, not the road for there was none, but the only place we could possibly ride—It appear'd to me, we had come to an end of the habitable part of the globe—but all these difficulties were at last surmounted, & we reach'd the Delaware—The river where it is cross'd, is much smaller than I suppos'd—The bridge over it is elegant I think—It is covered & has 16 windows each side—As soon as we pass'd the bridge, we enter'd Easton, the first town in Pennsylvania—It is a small but pleasant town—the houses are chiefly small, & built of stone—very near together. . . .

Stone is used for everything in this state—The barns & houses are almost entirely built of it—I

imagine the dutch pride themselves on building good barns, for a great many of them are very elegant—they are 3 & 4 stories high, have windows & one or 2. I saw with blinds—They are larger & handsomer than most of the houses—The dutch women are all out as we pass, dressing flax, picking up apples &c &c—The dress of the women grows worse & worse—We find them now with very short petticoats, no short gown & barefoot—The country is not pleasant, at least does not appear so as we ride thro' it at all—I should think the land must be good as we see large fields of grain very frequently—There does not appear to be as much fruit as in N Y & N J—We saw immense quantities of apples in each of those States, particularly N. J—there would be thousands of bushels at the cider presses, & still the trees would be borne down with them. . . .

We came but a little piece as the Dutchmen say, to day, & are in a most curious place to night—If possible I will describe it—It is a log hut built across the road from the tavern, for *movers*—that the landlord need not be *bother'd* with them—Had it been possible for our horses to have reached another inn we should not have staid with the cross old dutch fellow—we have a good fire, a long dirty table, a few boards nailed up for a closet, a dozen long boards in one side & as many barrels in the other—2 benches to sit on, two bottomless chairs, & a floor containing dirt enough to plant potatoes—The man says he has been so *bother'd* with *movers*, that he has taken down his sign, for he does not need his tavern to live—If we had a mind to stay we might but if we chose to go on he had no objection. . . .

After a comfortable nights rest, we set out on foot to reach the height of the m^{tn}—It rain'd fast for a long time, & at length began snowing—We found the roads bad past description,—worse than you can possibly imagine—Large stones & deep mud holes every step of the way—We were oblig'd to walk as much as we possibly could, as the horses could scarcely stir the waggon the mud was so deep & the stones so large—It has grown so cold that I fear we shall all perish tomorrow—We suffer'd with cold excessively, to day—From what I have seen & heard, I think the State of Ohio will be well fill'd before winter,—Waggons without number, every day go on—One went on containing *forty* people—We almost every day, see them with 18 or 20—one stopt here to night with 21—We are at a baker's, near a tavern which is fill'd with *movers* & waggons—It is a comfortable place, but rather small. . . . *I'm thinking* as they say here, we shall be oblig'd to winter on it, for I *reckon* we shall be unable to proceed on our journey, on account of roads, weather, &c—We are on the old Peensylvania road—the Glade road is said to be ten times worse than this—That is utterly impossible—We thought we should escape the waggons this way; but find as many of them as ever—they are a very great annoyance. . . .

We came but 9 or 10 miles to day, & are now near the 6th Mountain—in a tavern fill'd with half drunken noisy waggons—One of them lies singing directly before the fire; proposing just now to call

for a song from the young ladies— I can neither think nor write he makes so much noise with his *love songs*; I am every moment expecting something dreadful & dare not lay down my pen lest they should think me listening to them—They are the very worse wretches that ever liv'd, I do believe,—I am out of all patience with them—The whole world nor any thing in it, would tempt me to stay in this State three months—I dislike everything belonging to it—I am not so foolish as to suppose there are no better people in it than those we have seen; but let them be ever so good, I never desire to see any of them—We overtook an old waggoner whose waggon had got set in the mud, & I never heard a creature swear so—& whipt his horses till I thought they would die—I could not but wonder at the patience and forbearance of the Almighty, whose awful name was so blasphem'd— We also overtook a young *Doctor*—who is going with his father to Mad river in the state of Ohio—He has been studying physic in New Jersey,—but appears to be an uneducated man from the language he makes use of—I believe both himself & his father are very clever—I heard them reproving a swearer—He dresses smart, & was so polite as to assist us in getting over the mud—Susan & I walk'd on before the waggon as usual, & he overtook us and invited us into the house & called for some brandy sling—We did not drink, which he appear'd not to like very well, & has scarcely spoken to us since. . . .

One misfortune follows another, and I fear we shall never reach our journey's end— Yesterday we came about 3 miles—After coming down an awful hill, we were oblig'd to cross a creek; but before we quite came to it, the horses got mired, & we expected every moment one of them would die—but Erastus held his head out of water, while Mr W—was attempting to unharness them, & Mrs W— & Susan were on the bank, calling for help—I sat by, to see the horse breathe his last; but was happily disappointed in my expectation— No assistance could be got—till Mr W— waded through the water, & then 2 men with 3 horses came over—We came to this Inn, & Mr W— thought it best to stay till this morning. . . .

—In "The Monroe Doctrine—Its Precept and Practice," Percy F. Martin, the English journalist, asserts that the foreign policy of the United States has continually run counter to the implied pledge of the "Doctrine," and that the moral value of continued assertion of opposition to European influence in the Americas has been weakened correspondingly. Numerous instances are cited to show this. Regarding the territorial acquisitions of the United States during the last two decades and the military occupation of Cuba, the writer says: "In one and all of these acts the United States has been permitted to infringe the principles of its own Doctrine, without as much as an official protest being offered by any other Christian government, a fact which future recorders of events will regard with no less astonishment than indignation." The appearance of the article, as well as the feeling which characterizes it, is obviously due to the action of the American Government regarding Panama canal tolls. (*Fortnightly Review*, November.)

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An Editorial Request for Co-operation

Much has been accomplished by associations of history teachers in the description and collection of illustrative material for history classes; but the field has not yet been covered. Indeed, one form of illustrative historical material has not rendered accessible by any of the agencies working among the history teachers of the United States.

This unworked field is that comprising the use of lanterns and lantern pictures in history classes. Individual teachers in secondary schools in widely separated cities, have experimented with the lantern, and, like Mr. Tucker, in St. Louis, have had fairly satisfactory results. Many college professors, like Professor Lingelbach, have made collections of slides for some limited field, or for special college courses, or to use in connection with public lectures. A few lantern slide makers of national reputation have at-

tempted, usually without expert advice, to put upon the market series of historical slides. Many local photographers have issued views and slides of historical scenes and buildings in their immediate vicinity.

But in this work of school teachers, college professors, slide makers and photographers, there has been virtually no co-operation. Scarcely any one of these workers knows what the others have done; slide makers have used their own judgment in deciding what was historically valuable; college professors have rarely advised with one another concerning the gathering of slide collections; very few public school teachers know where to obtain slides, or how to get an estimate of the expense of equipping a lantern room. What is needed is a clearing-house for all existing information on lanterns and slides.

Will not every reader of this page join the editors of the MAGAZINE in collecting this information? If they will, the editors will strive to arrange the material in convenient form and will print the results in the near future. The April number of the MAGAZINE is available for such a purpose and if sufficient material is received by March 10, 1913, the subject will be taken up in the number of the following month. Contributions of information should be sent to the Managing Editor, and should contain all information in the possession of the contributor. It will be well to send even the more obvious and general information as well as specific, personal and local details.

Among the many phases of the subject, information is particularly desired upon the following points:

1. The names and addresses of dealers in slides, photographs, and post-cards. The list should include general dealers, both in America and in European countries; publishers of local photographs and post-cards possessing historical significance.

2. Annotations should be made showing, as far as possible, the character of slides or pictures to be obtained from each dealer.

3. Private collections of slides. These should include collections made by individual instructors, lecturers, and semi-public institutions, like libraries, boards of education, etc. Information is also desired as to the availability of these private collections for loan, exchange, or sale.

4. Illustrated Historical Lectures given by historical specialists, not only in the lecturers' own institutions, but which, under private terms, may be given by the author elsewhere.

5. Methods of manufacturing slides; with references to books and magazines describing simple and inexpensive methods.

6. Methods of arranging and cataloguing slides and other pictures for school and college use.

7. Various forms of projecting apparatus now on the market; with the names and addresses of the manufacturers or dealers.

8. Actual figures of the complete cost of fitting up a class-room for lantern purposes.

History in the Secondary School

J. MONTGOMERY GAMBRILL, EDITOR.

The Economics of Slavery

BY E. C. HARTWELL, SUPERINTENDENT OF SCHOOLS, PETOSKEY, MICH.

Somewhere in the high school course in American history, the teacher should spend time to demonstrate to the Northern boy and girl that slavery in America had its origin in economic necessity rather than in human wickedness. The vital importance of labor in any new community will be easily appreciated by children if some of the homely needs of the colonist's daily life are properly considered. A day previous to the recitation, a list of questions may be given to the class calculated to bring out the number and immensity of the tasks before a settler in the New World. Let these questions stimulate the student's imagination and inquiry as to how the colonist's house was built, his land cleared, his crops planted, harvested, and made into food, his constant problems of light, fuel, transportation, and protection. All this should be done in the study of the colonial period. The student should be made to understand why it was difficult to secure or keep a supply of free labor. Here again a few advance questions will be of assistance. Questions as to the prices paid to-day to harvest hands during the summer rush, the ever present difficulty of getting good domestic servants, and the usual ambition of the hired agricultural laborer, will bring out the effect of cheap land on the supply of labor for hire, and the effect of competition among employers, on the wages of workers. The class will readily appreciate that no one will work for wages when there is an abundant supply of free and virgin land at hand waiting to be used. They will also see that every addition to the number of independent colonists augments the demand for labor. These conditions ought to make clear why slavery became widely and firmly established in the New World. Slave labor could be organized and kept at work. It was resorted to in every colony.

But why did it disappear from the North and become more thoroughly and distinctively a Southern institution? Sometime before the Compromise of 1850 is reached, let the teacher assign for a day's lesson a set of questions covering such points as:

1. The peculiarities of slave labor.
2. Difference in the products of the North and South.
3. The effectiveness of labor as applied to these products.
4. Difficulties of getting free labor in the South.
5. The various industries of the North, and the necessity of a market to make them profitable.
6. Location of these markets.
7. Comparative difficulties of abolition in the North and South.
8. Considerations determining the location of immigrants coming to this country before the war.

The discussion of these questions will develop the fact that while slave labor was susceptible of effective organization and especially adaptable to agriculture conducted on a large scale, it was unskillful and unwilling labor and impossible of use in manufacturing or other industries. It had no versatility. The discussion should bring out the fact that while one laborer could cultivate twenty acres of corn or wheat, the products for which Northern soil and climate were best adapted, the same laborer could

hardly hope to cultivate more than four or five acres of cotton or tobacco, the natural products of the South. The unusual demand for labor in the South, coupled with the climatic conditions and the presence of cheap land will explain the difficulty of organizing free labor in the cotton and tobacco industries.

It will be discovered that the South, devoted almost solely to agriculture, furnished a market for Northern food stuffs and manufactures, and furnished a considerable impetus to the Northern carrying trade, in none of which industries slave labor could be used effectively.

The difficulties in the way of the humane master who wished to free his slaves will be thoroughly brought out. The fear of the free negro in the South and the constant danger of a slave insurrection were very real, while in the North the slaves, who were most of them white, and the comparatively few blacks, could be absorbed into the population without much trouble.

It will be understood that when slavery was once really established in the South immigration to that section ceased, and that with the increased immigration to the Northern states, the need of slaves even in agriculture became increasingly less.

When the class have reached the incidental mention usually made in high school history texts of *Helper's Impending Crisis*, a recitation may profitably be spent in summarizing the economic effects of slavery. Preparation on such questions as the following will insure an intelligent and interesting discussion:

1. Was the culture of cotton and tobacco profitable?
2. What things had contributed to make the culture of cotton increasingly profitable during the eighteenth century?
3. What is the effect of cotton and tobacco culture on the soil?
4. How would the employment of slave labor affect the science of agriculture?
5. What would be the effect of such conditions on the demand for more land and slaves?
6. In what particulars did the large planter have the advantage in the competition for new lands?
7. What was the effect of this competition on the small farmer of the South? What on the population of the older southern states?
8. How would slavery affect the ability and the disposition of the people to save?
9. How would this affect the number of banks, railways, good roads, and the employment of capital in other industries than agriculture?

From the discussion of these questions will be developed the explanation as to the steadily increasing price of slaves and the corresponding indignation at their escape; the reasons for the stratification of southern society will be made clearer; the lack of material prosperity among the non-slave-holding whites and their political, social, and industrial subservience to the "great planters," explained. The student will understand why the population of the South increased so slowly, the natural resources remained so undeveloped, and the demand for new land became so active.

Outline of European History

Based on the Recommendations of the Committee of Five

BY DANIEL C. KNOWLTON, PH.D., AND ARTHUR M. WOLFSON, PH.D.

III. Commercial Wars of the Eighteenth Century

Introduction.

The industrial and commercial development, outlined in last instalment, lead in the eighteenth century to a series of commercial wars which culminated in the great struggle between England and France, known as the Seven Years' War. Upon this war of the middle of the century the teacher will do well to concentrate most of his efforts. It is necessary, however, if the pupils are to understand the full significance of this struggle, that a preliminary study be made of the European colonial enterprises which existed at the beginning of the eighteenth century, noting the final emergence of France and England as the leading world powers. The explanation of the rise and decay of their predecessors is to be found not alone in the mistakes which marked their entrance into this new field of endeavor, but in the changes which were gradually transforming the map of Europe while their attention was more or less focused upon these remote corners of the earth. In almost every case the wars which marked the 18th century have left their imprint upon fields far removed from those where the struggle seemed to rage the fiercest. Although this century was marked by dynastic rivalries and the selfish aggrandizement of the stronger states at the expense of their weaker neighbors, the interests of trade become more and more evident and constitute an important element in shaping alliances, and in dictating policies until finally they become the dominant and controlling factor of the situation. The climax is reached with the middle of the century in the struggle between France and England for the control of Asia and America.

The War of the Spanish Succession, although entered into largely for territorial aggrandizement in Europe likewise marked the entrance into European jealousies of colonial and commercial questions. England had already manifested her power on the sea. This struggle confirmed anew the impression already created of her maritime supremacy and furnished added assurance to her far-sighted statesmen as to the future of her colonizing enterprises. The merchant class in England came more and more to the front with the Revolution of 1688 and from this time on form the real backbone of the nation. The interest of parliament in this struggle and in those which marked the middle of the century was dictated more and more by considerations of trade. With the War of the Austrian Succession the real issue between France and England became more clearly defined as the future success or failure of English and French enterprise in North America and India. This war, however, was but the prelude to the titanic contest which opened in 1756 and settled the fate of those distant countries. The failure of France to meet the crisis precipitated by her statesmen in America and India may be explained in part by the reversal of her traditional policy of hatred and hostility to the House of Hapsburg. By neglecting the American and Asiatic interests involved and throwing her main strength into the European contest she made it possible for William Pitt, the Elder, to shatter, forever, on the battlefields of Europe, the dreams of a Dupleix and a Frontenac.

The Three Seats of Operation in the Seven Years' War.

In the study of the war of the middle of the century, the pupil should be made to see that the struggle goes on in three widely separated parts of the world. (1) In Europe, Frederick the Great, assisted by English subsidies and English soldiers, is fighting against France, Austria, Russia, and Sweden. In spite of the apparently insurmountable difficulties, Frederick is successful. (2) In India, the struggle brings into prominence two extraordinary men: Dupleix and Clive. Both should become familiar figures to the pupil before the teacher leaves the subject. In the end the English triumphed and we have the beginnings of the modern British empire in India. (3) In North America, the struggle is equally fierce and equally interesting. Here Montcalm and Wolfe are the two heroes. The end of the struggle is again a complete triumph for England and the establishment of an empire which extended from the Gulf of Mexico to the Arctic Ocean, from the Atlantic to the Mississippi river.

The American Revolution.

The newly-won British empire in North America was soon split asunder. Although England's colonial policy thus far had been characterized (1) by the passage of strict laws looking to the control of trade and manufacture in the New World in the interests of the mother country, and (2) a close supervision of the colonies by the Board of Trade, in actual practice, she allowed many of these statutes to lapse and the colonies had enjoyed no small degree of economic and legislative freedom. When George III reversed the situation and initiated the new policy of actual regulation and control which amounted in many cases to repression, he encountered on every hand naught but opposition. A series of blunders on the part of the ministers entrusted with the formulation of these new policies finally drove the colonists to actual rebellion and severed the thirteen colonies altogether from the British Crown. Their success in this struggle was in no small part due to England's position in Europe. The same blunders which marked her colonial policy left her without a friend on the continent.

References.

Many of the books mentioned in the December number should prove helpful in presenting this topic. Special mention should be made of Seignobos, *Contemporary Civilization*, Chapter II, Robertson, *England under the Hanoverians*, particularly the chapters entitled "The Struggle for Empire" and "The Disruption of the Empire," Cunningham, *Western Civilization*, Vol. II, Book V, Chapter III, Hassall, *Balance of Power*, pp. 4-5, Rogers, *Economic Interpretation of History*, Chapter XV, and Longman, *Frederick the Great*, Chapters I, IV-XV, Morris, *Colonization*, (Vol. I, Part III, Chapters V, VIII, X, XII, Vol. II, Chapters XVII-XVIII), will help explain the failures of Portugal, Spain, Holland and France and the final supremacy of England. Mahan, *Influence of Sea Power on European History, 1660-1783* should be read in this connection and also for his presentation of the naval phase of these wars.

The strictly European aspects of the period may be covered by the use of such histories as Robinson and Beard, *Development of Modern Europe* (Vol. I, Chapters I-V), Wakeman, *European History, 1598-1715* (Chapter XV), Hassall, *Balance of Power*, (Chapters VI-IX), and Johnson, *Age of the Enlightened Despot*, (Chapters 'III, VII-VIII).

For the rivalry in Asia and America, the following books should be consulted: Robinson and Beard, Vol. I, Chapters VI-VII; Seeley, *Expansion of the British Empire*; Woodward, *Expansion of the British Empire*; Lyall, *The British in India*; Hunter, *Brief History of the Indian Peoples*; Parkman, *Montcalm and Wolfe*. The broader aspects of the American Revolution are presented in Goldwin Smith, *United States*, Chapters I-II, Lecky, *England in the 18th Century* (the chapters on the American Revolution, edited by Woodburn separately), Trevelyan, *American Revolution*, Howard, *Preliminaries of the American Revolution*, Van Tyne, *American Revolution*, Fiske, *American Revolution*, and the *Cambridge Modern History*, Vol. VII.

Outline.

I. The rival colonial and commercial powers of the 18th century.

1. The older world powers and their decay.
 - a. The remnants of the Portuguese power.
 - (1) In South America.
 - (2) In the East: Goa; Malay Archipelago and Macao.
 - b. Spain's American possessions.
 - c. The Dutch in Asia.
 - d. Reasons for their decay.
2. The Expansion of England and France.
 - a. In America.
 - (1) The Thirteen Colonies.
 - (2) The French occupation of Canada and the Mississippi valley.
 - (3) Contrasts between French and English enterprise in America.
 - b. In India.
 - (1) The London East India Company and its work.
 - (2) The Rise of the French power in India and Bengal.

II. The preliminary struggles for world wide supremacy.

1. The War of the Spanish Succession and its effects upon colonial and commercial development, 1701-1713.
 - a. Causes.
 - (1) Primary: dynastic interests; balance of power.
 - (2) Secondary: colonial interests.
 - b. Participants.
 - c. The war.
 - (1) In Europe—Victories of Marlborough.
 - (2) In America—Conquest of Acadia (what the word then meant).

d. Effects.

- (1) On French prestige.
- (2) On Colonies and commerce—gains of England.
2. The War of the Austrian Succession.
 - a. European causes.
 - b. Colonial interests involved.
 - (1) In India—Rivalry of Dupleix and Clive.
 - (2) In North America.
 - c. Results—Treaty of Aix-la-Chapelle.
3. The Diplomatic Revolution and its effects upon the European and Colonial situation.
 - a. Nature of the change.
 - b. Divided interests of France.
 - c. Position of France and England in 1750.

III. The Triumph of Great Britain—The Seven Years' War, 1756-1763.

1. Connection of the war with the preceding struggles.
 - a. Enmity of Maria Theresa and Frederick the Great.
 - b. Clashing interests of France and England in America and Asia.
2. The allies and their interests in the struggle.
3. The contest.
 - a. On the continent—Victories of Frederick the Great.
 - b. In North America.
 - (1) Period of Disaster—Braddock's Expedition.
 - (2) Policy of William Pitt and Success of England.
 - c. In India.
 - (1) The Black Hole Incident.
 - (2) Clive and the subjugation of Bengal—Plassey, 1757.
 - (3) Overthrow of the French in Southern India—Wandewash.
4. The Treaty of Paris, 1763.

IV. The American Revolution and its effects on Europe.

1. Attempts of England to change her colonial policy.
 - a. The old policy—in theory.
 - (1) Trade and Navigation Acts.
 - (2) Board of Trade.
 - b. The old policy—in practice—Walpole.
 - c. The accession of George III and its effects on American colonial policy.
 - (1) Measures of Grenville.
 - (2) The Townshend Acts.
2. The opposition in America.
 - a. Stamp Act Congress.
 - b. Non-Intercourse agreements and Committees of Correspondence.
 - c. The Continental Congresses.
 - d. The Declaration of Independence.
3. The War.
 - a. Isolation of England in Europe.
 - b. Victories of Saratoga and Yorktown.
4. The Treaty of Peace (1783) and its effects.
 - a. Formation of the United States.
 - b. Influence upon English colonial policy.

Waste in History Instruction

BY ROMIETT STEVENS, PH.D., ASSISTANT PROFESSOR OF SECONDARY EDUCATION, TEACHERS COLLEGE, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY.

A spirit of unrest seems to haunt the teaching of history. It manifests itself in different guises at different times and seasons, but it always arouses in its course, a certain definite conviction that there is something radically wrong with the teaching of history—that the net results of history instruction are incommensurate with the effort invested in the pursuance of the subject. It tells us that the content of history, so rich in humanizing influences,

seems to secure no real grip on the lives of the boys and girls who pursue it diligently; that all the great culture values claimed for the study of history seem to have fallen by the wayside and failed to make those points of attachment desired of them in the lives of the youth who have completed the prescribed course in history; that the concept "history" connotes to most pupils just *facts*—thousands and thousands of facts in sequence, from the

building of the Pyramids to the present Balkan situation; that there are elements of waste somewhere in the content of history, in the form of its presentation, or in the ability of pupils to make use of it.

The large body of history teachers who stand as intermediaries between the closely packed content of their subject on the one hand and the indifferently interested boys and girls on the other hand, trying to relate these disparate elements, realize as keenly as anyone the significance of the unrest. Someone says the trouble lies with the curriculum: it is too crowded; it is impossible to teach all of history in the limited time allotment in four years of high school. The consequence is that the curriculum undergoes some form of treatment—perhaps Greek and Roman history are eliminated, or American history is relegated to the grades. Again, someone says that history aims to interpret the present in the light of past events, and he urges that it is impossible to interpret the present in the light of past events unless we know something of past events, so Greek and Roman history are again grafted upon the curriculum—and the teacher keeps on teaching. Again, it is urged that the trouble lies with the text-books: that the writers of texts are historians and not teachers, and so they cannot appreciate the needs and the problems of teachers. Again, the quarrel is with the college entrance examinations that permit standards of inefficiency in the nature of the test questions propounded.

Undoubtedly it is true that the curriculum is responsible for waste effort—that it is not possible to realize any of the many aims for the teaching of history by crowding into four years of work, a rehearsal of the full series of events, political, economic and humane, from 4000 B. C. to 1912 A. D. Undoubtedly it is true that there is some waste in an effort to measure up to the examination questions that a group of profound scholars might ask. True also is the statement that text-books are faulty. Let us admit that curricula, texts and examination questions are worthy subjects for controversy, and let us hope that as they in turn evolve towards the ideal they may accomplish much for the elimination of waste in history instruction. When this ideal is attained may there not still be some elements of waste?

It may not be unprofitable to entertain for a moment the thought of a perfect solution of these problems. Suppose that ideal curricula are worked out—one for the college entrance student headed towards the professions, another for the pupil vocationally bent, with the proper inclinations and ramifications for the laborer, the commercial man, the artisan, and still another for the girl who is being ideally trained for the life of an American woman in her home. Suppose that the colleges become so magnanimous that they voluntarily abolish entrance examinations and say to all high schools, "We shall be proud to carry on the higher training of the youth you may choose to send us." Now if these Utopian heights could be attained, I wonder if we could justly feel that all the elements of waste had been eliminated and that the teaching of history would thenceforth become perfect? There would remain the children with motives more or less vague and the teacher with methods more or less variable. The teacher would then use the ideal content of the ideal course of study as a medium for the realization of some aim for history instruction not standardized by the colleges. Instruction would, however, remain practically what it is now, a reflection of the teacher's own outlook upon history, his method of using it, hence his method of teaching it. In this phase of effort it may be well to look for sources and causes of waste. For the sake of directness and brevity, I ask you to consider three chief sources of

waste for which the teacher seems most directly responsible: (A) Indefiniteness as to the purpose for teaching history; (B) Slavish dependence upon the text-book; (C) The very general tendency of teachers to do most of the work.

(A) Indefiniteness as to Purpose.

I have never been able to find a half dozen teachers of history to agree to any one purpose for the teaching of their subject. I do not even find that the suggestions of the Report of the Committee of Seven have been very generally incorporated into the practice of many teachers. The Report of the Committee of Seven devotes a chapter to the Values of Historical Study, amongst which we find the most frequently repeated purposes or values, namely, training for citizenship, training in judgment, training in character. In addition to these purposes, which are somewhat remote in their realization, there occur the following more immediate values; "The chief object of every experienced teacher is to get pupils to think properly after the method adopted in his particular line of work; not an accumulation of information, but the habit of correct thinking, is the supreme result of good teaching in every branch of instruction." "That boys and girls in the school-room should be introduced to the past, which has created the present; that historical-mindedness should be in some slight measure bred within them, and that they should be given the habit, or the beginnings of a habit, of considering what has been, when they discuss what is or what should be." "The study of history gives training not only in acquiring facts, but in arranging and systematizing them, and in putting forth individual product." There are other purposes differing more or less from these, which are heard occasionally, namely: the purpose of making history worth while; relating history to life; socializing history; "my purpose is to teach history"; "facts—just facts—for I believe that a person cannot have too many facts at his command"; and then that other immediately utilitarian but perfectly honest purpose, summed up in the word "Examinations." While there is obviously a problem here for major educators to unify these purposes for the teaching of history in line with the aim of all education, there is nothing to prevent class teachers in the interim from selecting one of the above purposes for their guidance, since they are all good. Until the ideal utilitarian purposes are defined, it would seem to be an economic and sensible measure to select one purpose that is consistent with the psychology of the teaching process and to teach history in accordance with it—for example, so simple a purpose as one suggested by the Report of the Committee of Seven "that boys and girls in the school-room should be introduced to the past which has created the present—that they should be given the habit, or the beginnings of a habit, of considering what has been, when they discuss what is or what should be." If boys and girls were consistently brought up to "relate past and present," all the more remote purposes of training for citizenship, training in historical judgments, training in character might have their justification, and the more immediate aims would unconsciously be incorporated, even the "Examinations" aim. If a teacher would posit such a purpose clearly, and so teach history that his purpose is visible—in other words, so that it actually shines through his method—there would be some positive assets to take into consideration at the close of a year's study.

(B) Slavish Adherence to Text.

It may be that the absence of a unified purpose for the teaching of history has led teachers to take refuge within the covers of the text-book. It is certainly true that in a very large number of class-rooms the "hearing" of the

text lesson seems to be the end-all of instruction. In a rather extensive series of investigations in the teaching of history, I have found a characteristic method of procedure that I can best bring to your attention by a brief quotation. The teacher had assigned five pages on Martin Luther in Robinson's *History of Western Europe*, pp. 387-392. The recitation opened as follows:

Teacher: Miss A, you may tell us about Luther's birth and education.

1st pupil: Martin Luther was born a peasant. His parents lived in the Harz Mountains and his mother used to carry wood on her back and tell him stories about witches. He was born in 1563.

Teacher: What year?

1st pupil: 1563 I think it was. No, 1653. I guess I have forgotten.

Teacher: Miss B, can you give the year?

2nd pupil: 1483.

1st pupil: Oh, yes, 1483.

Teacher: Well, go on from there.

1st pupil: I do not know much more about his early life, except that he liked logic.

Teacher: Miss C, will you recite from there?

3rd pupil: He went to a university, and—

Teacher: Yes, Luther's parents, although they were poor, wished him to be educated as a lawyer, so they sent him to school and at the age of 18, he was sent to the University of Erfurt, where he remained for years, and became acquainted with other scholars, through whom he developed an interest in classical writers.

The second and succeeding paragraphs were recited similarly until the gong finally interrupted the recitation on Luther's Theses on Indulgences. "We'll go on from there to-morrow" are the parting words of the teacher. This constitutes history instruction in many quarters. Groups of third-year pupils of more than average ability are assigned to study at home a given number of paragraphs on Luther, and they are obviously required to reproduce in sequence all the facts set forth by the text.

I believe that in this line-to-line method of text-book repetition there is a waste of effort for the conscientious teacher and for the able pupil who is supposedly being trained in habits of historical interpretation.

This condition of instruction reflected in the illustration is paralleled by the statement of a high school girl of my acquaintance whose mother asked her on Thursday night if she had no history lesson to prepare for Friday. She replied, "Well, I learned the reign of William the Conqueror last Sunday: we said it on Monday, and we said it over on Wednesday, and now we're going to say it over again to-morrow, so there isn't anything to do because I know every word. Teacher says we're to keep on saying it until everyone knows it."

I call to mind another pupil who complained to her father about the hard lesson in history. There were so many facts in a paragraph that she could not remember them all. Upon reading the paragraph, he appreciated the difficulty—this is it:

"The Long Parliament began by imprisoning Strafford, the king's most conspicuous minister, and Archbishop Laud in the Tower of London. The help that Strafford had given to the king in ruling without Parliament had mortally offended the House of Commons. They declared him guilty of treason, and he was executed in 1641, in spite of Charles' efforts to save him. Laud met the same fate four years later. Parliament also tried to strengthen its position by passing the Triennial Bill, which provided that it should meet at least once in three years, even if not summoned by the king. The Courts of Star Chamber and High Commission, which had arbitrarily condemned a number of the king's opponents, were abolished, and ship money declared illegal. In short, Charles' whole system

of government was abrogated. The efforts of the queen to obtain soldiers and money from the Pope, and a visit of Charles to Scotland, which Parliament suspected was for the purpose of forcing the Scots to lend him an army to use against themselves, led to the Grand Remonstrance. In this, all of Charles' errors were enumerated and a demand was made that the king's ministers should thereafter be responsible to Parliament. This document Parliament ordered to be printed and circulated throughout the Country."

The father, in his efforts to help the child with an obviously difficult task, suggested that the author of the text put many details into a paragraph as explanatory or illuminating material, in order to make the essential facts stand out more clearly, but that it was not intended that she should memorize all of them. Then he helped her to select a few leading facts to sustain the narrative. In this way the history lesson was mastered in the sense that "systematizing of facts," "historical mindedness," "habits of work," were set above mere accumulation of facts. Next day the girl returned in despair, saying, "She says we must learn all the facts in the paragraph, because we cannot tell which she will call for."

Would it not be a saving of effort if the teacher should indicate in a way what facts would be called for? Since it is purposeless to learn them all, and obviously impossible as well, why attempt such indiscriminate memorizing? The organization of facts for a chapter in a text-book and the organization of that chapter for purposes of a recitation in history are two distinct things. The text is a closely packed book of reference from which teachers and pupils may select what is essential to the organization of a purposeful lesson. The teacher who indicates to his class when making his assignment, what is to be the basis for selection of facts, conserves energy; the one who tries to hold fast to every fact is the most extravagantly wasteful of teachers. One good teacher, in assigning pages 107-110 in Cheyney's *History of England* (Reign of William I) said: "While studying this lesson, I should like you to answer the following questions intelligently and fully: (a) Which of the customs installed by William I. deserved to live longest? (b) Gather up all the important facts that prove William's power as an organizer. (c) What relics of William's influence in England still linger at the present time? (d) What do you consider the dominant characteristic of William as a ruler?" These questions suggested the basis for the selection of facts and served as nuclei for the association of certain ideas of the lesson. Work of this nature lifts history out of the flat pages of the text and relates it to the life and the judgments of the living students. Unfortunately, it is more rare than the type illustrated by the paragraph on Luther. So long as teachers are unable or unwilling to organize the stuff of history around some central thought, and to weigh facts for their values in relation to that central thought, so long will there be conspicuous waste in their teaching.

(C) The Teacher does the Work.

As a very natural result of requiring pupils to amass facts as facts, the teacher is obliged to face the problem of a requirement imperfectly or inadequately fulfilled. It takes a long time to memorize six pages of a lesson that is unmotivated, and not all members of a class will succeed in doing it every day. The result is illustrated in the answer given by the first pupil in the paragraph quoted from the Luther lesson. In her attempt to learn the facts she was able to say "Martin Luther was born a peasant. His parents lived in the Harz Mountains and his mother used to carry wood on her back and tell his stories about witches. He was born in 1563 (error). He liked logic." Then followed the scattered efforts to correct and to con-

tinue the recitation, with such poor results that in desperation the teacher took up the narrative and rounded it out. This is a modest illustration of what our teachers are doing habitually.

In a series of a dozen records of actual history lessons given by teachers of acknowledged merit, I find that the percentage of time consumed by the teachers in the class periods is roughly as follows: 80, 57, 58, 74, 61, 58, 63, 65, 90, 69, 76, 40—an average of 66 per cent. Only one of the twelve did less than half of the talking. In considering the remainder, which represents the activity of the pupils, we must recall that it represents the activity of the pupils taken collectively, the opportunity granted to individual pupils being correspondingly small. The only significance I attach to this statement is that if a teacher talks for 80 per cent. or 60 per cent. of the time, he is doing *too much work*. And what is he doing while he is talking 80 per cent. of the time? He is adding more facts to the existing accumulation, or he is repeating the substance of the text, or he is outlining, or summarizing.

Most of the summaries recorded are made by the teachers, but when we consider that the value of a summary is in the *making* of it, we must admit that the teacher is the sole beneficiary.

Pupils are slow, honest teachers say; we would never get through if we waited for pupils to think things out. True, pupils are frequently slow, but the time allowed them to recall and to associate ideas and to clothe them fittingly for expression is extremely fruitful for educative processes, while the time spent by the teacher doing intellectual work for them is in a large degree waste effort. The ability to select the important facts of a lesson, to set them forth in right relations to each other is an attainment of historical study. Our pupils need to grow each day in the power to do this kind of work, and we know that they can grow in the ability to do it only as they are given exercise in the doing. This distinctly precludes the teacher's doing for them.

These three sources of waste in history instruction are rather closely related. In the absence of real motives for teaching history, the false motive "Examination" has become a fetish; in measuring to its demands the details of the text-book have become the law, to the extinction of real historical movements; and then the over-conscientious teacher, in his efforts to achieve the impossible, has fallen into the habit of doing the work himself. To conserve this lost energy would seem a simple matter if the teacher would organize the content of his lesson in such a way that a real purpose would live in it and through it. This might be a step towards the ultimate motivation of the historical study by the pupil himself. It would certainly serve to place the text-book and the teacher in their right relations, educationally, to history and to the pupil, and to enable the pupil and history to become the dynamic forces in instruction.

Reports from the Historical Field

WALTER H. CUSHING, EDITOR.

Edward Channing has been appointed McLean Professor of Ancient and Modern History, from September 1, 1912.

Charles Homer Haskins has been appointed Gurney Professor of History and Political Science at Harvard University, from September 1, 1912.

Professor William Scott Ferguson will be absent from Harvard on leave, from September, 1913. He will be at the American School at Athens.

Professor Ephraim D. Adams, of Stanford University, is teaching at Yale University during this second half-year.

The meeting of the Vassar Alumnae Historical Association, which usually occurs on the Saturday following Washington's Birthday, will be omitted for this year.

NEW ENGLAND ASSOCIATION.

The annual meeting for the election of officers was held on Saturday, December 28, 1912. The following were chosen: President, Dr. John Haynes, Hyde Park High School, Boston; Vice-President, Dr. Ellen Scott Davison, Bradford Academy; Secretary-treasurer, Walter H. Cushing, Framingham, Mass.; Committees, for two years, Professor William S. Ferguson, Harvard University; Rollin M. Gallagher, Middlesex School, Concord, Mass.

The past year has been one of continued activity for the Association. To its list of publications of a permanent character, was added A Catalogue of the Collection of Historical Material (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.); and a new series of pictures, The French Revolution, has been issued. Miss Davison will continue as chairman of the Committee on the Historical Pictures.

Additions to the collection at Simmons College have been made, and the Association is now confronted with the serious question of a permanent home for this valuable material.

The proceedings of the Association for 1912 will be published shortly in the MAGAZINE and sent to all members. They will include the paper by Mr. G. P. Hitchcock, of the Brookline High School, on the Teaching of Civil Government with Reference to Community Affairs, read at the Springfield meeting in April; the after-dinner address of Mr. Waldo L. Cook, of the Springfield *Republican* on The Press in its Relation to History; and Professor Sumner's Report on Historical Equipment, read at the annual meeting in Boston, December 28, 1912.

An important meeting of the Committee on Courses of Study, Professor S. M. Kingsbury, Simmons College, chairman, was held on Saturday, January 18, 1913. There were present, beside the chairman and secretary, Dr. John Haynes, President of the Association; Miss Mary L. Sawyer and Miss Grace T. Smith, of the Technical High School, Springfield; Mr. Winthrop Tirrell, High School of Commerce, Boston; Mr. Thomas H. H. Knight, Girls' High School, Boston; Mr. Horace Kidger, Technical High School, Newton; Mr. Louis A. Wells, Mechanic Arts High School, Boston.

Mr. Tirrell and Mr. Kidger reported for the sub-committee on present conditions in the teaching of economics and industrial history. An enquiry directed to over one hundred and fifty schools shows that both are taught in most city high schools, generally as electives. The middle West is especially giving these subjects attention. Industrial History is more generally taught than Economics. Opinion is divided on the question of the desirability of a syllabus in Economics.

After considerable discussion, it was voted that the Committee recommend to the Council that the present committee be subdivided into two committees, one to deal with Commercial and Industrial History, the other with Economics. As a result of the vote the Association will have two committees actively at work on these two subjects. The scope of the committees' work will also be broadened to include industrial and part-time trade schools.

The Council will meet on Friday, February 7th, and consider the question of the spring meeting and the composition of the new committee. At a meeting of the Council, January 17th, the president was authorized to appoint the regular committee and was made a member ex-officio of all committees.

Bibliography of History and Civics

PREPARED BY A COMMITTEE OF THE MISSISSIPPI VALLEY HISTORICAL ASSOCIATION, WAYLAND J. CHASE, THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, CHAIRMAN.

STANWOOD, EDWARD. *A History of the Presidency from 1897 to 1909.* Boston, Houghton, Mifflin Co. Pp. 298. \$1.75.

We are all very much in debt to Mr. Stanwood for his authoritative history of the Presidency up to 1897, and now he has put us more deeply under obligation by continuing his work down to 1909. Mr. Stanwood has maintained a position of rigid impartiality throughout the book. In fact, he has been so careful in his statements that in many instances he has stripped them bare of opinion of any sort, leaving nothing but a catalogue of events. It would add greatly to the interest, and I think, to the value of the book, if there had been included more of current opinion. It would seem that the great value of any strictly contemporaneous history lies in its representation of the current thought of the time. Mr. Stanwood has been so rigidly impartial in his statements, that one is in doubt until almost the end as to whether he ranks himself among the progressives or conservatives of the recent political upheavals. The book contains the platforms of the political parties of the period it covers, and of the campaign of 1912.

The first chapter is entitled, "Imperialism" the "Paramount" Issue. Currency reform is in the air, but McKinley and the Republican leaders conceive that the great necessity of the hour is tariff legislation. In the light of the present attitude of the public to tariff legislation it is interesting to see the nation respond so heartily to the high protective system of the Dingley Tariff bill, although, to be sure, it lowered the schedules of the McKinley Tariff that preceded it. The chapter reviews the inception of the Spanish-American War, our relations with Cuba, the annexation of Hawaii and the acquisition of the Philippine Islands and of Porto Rico. Out of this situation came the issue of the campaign of 1900.

The second chapter is entitled, Roosevelt's election for a second term and touches briefly the settlement of our governmental relations with Cuba, the accession of Roosevelt to the Presidency, the acquisition of the Panama Canal zone, the great coal strike and its settlement and the campaign of 1904.

Chapter three is entitled, The Era of "Progressive" Insurgency. It deals with the many and various activities of the period with considerable amplitude, especially the engagement of the United States to see to it that the foreign creditors of Santo Domingo receive payment, the re-establishment of order and government in Cuba, the assistance given Russia and Japan in bringing their great struggle to a close, the understanding reached with Japan concerning our mutual interests in the Pacific Ocean and especially the railroad and trust legislation instituted and urged by President Roosevelt. The other numerous laws of this administration are for the most part merely listed. On page 141 the author says that the second administration of President Roosevelt was one of agitation rather than of accomplishment, but on page 149 he says that the list of great public measures enacted into law during this same time was "probably of greater length than is exhibited by the history of any previous Congress except the First."

The last chapter is an essay entitled "The Evolution of the Presidency." This is discussed under three heads,

namely: removals from office, the exercise of the veto power, and the relations between the President and Congress. The general contention is that there have been large encroachments by the Executive upon the other departments of government although without violation of the letter of the constitution. The author declares that in allowing too large a share of the government to get into the hands of one man lies the danger to American government. This essay is the most interesting part of the book because in it Mr. Stanwood has allowed himself greater freedom of expression and has given his own opinion without hesitation.

This book is not suited to high school students, but is valuable as a reference book for high school teachers and for anyone who wishes to keep in mind the political issues of the past fifteen years. CARL E. PRAY.

HASKIN, F. J. *The American Government.* Philadelphia, J. B. Lippincott & Co. Pp. xvii., 407. \$1.00.

This is not a treatise on the science of government nor a history of our political institutions, nor a description of how governmental machinery works in the abstract, but a concrete statement in thirty-one chapters of the aims and daily tasks of different officials or departments of the federal government. Thus the every-day duties of the president, the various functions of the executive departments and the work in detail of some of the principal bureaus of these, and the methods of procedure of the houses of congress, of the federal courts and of the interstate commerce commission are set forth. Chapters, too, are given to the Panama Canal, our Insular Possessions, the Pan-American Union, the National Capital and National Political Campaigns. This material is presented in newsy fashion, sometimes, indeed, with undue emphasis on the sensational and unusual, but with inclusion of much that is important and vital. Moreover, the publishers declare that before publication, each chapter was read and approved by the appropriate authority in each branch of the federal service. Twenty-four excellent illustrations contribute to the usefulness of the book, which offers much promise of serviceableness for high schools as supplementary reading in both civil government and history.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

PARKER, D. B. *A Chautauqua Boy in '61 and Afterward.* Boston, Small, Maynard & Co. Pp. xviii., 388. \$3.00.

Professor Albert Bushnell Hart, who values this autobiography highly enough to give it a ten-page introduction, says of it that hardly any of the many volumes of reminiscences of the civil war period reveals so much of soldier life, of the inner workings of the army and of the public service as this does. The author enlisted in the Union army when he was eighteen; soon he achieved a lieutenantancy and was placed by General Hooker in charge of the mail service of the Army of the Potomac and retained the position under both Meade and Grant, at whose request Lincoln appointed him special agent of the Post Office department. After services in the mail service in Virginia, he was appointed federal marshal for Virginia, and from 1876 to 1883 was Chief of the Inspectors of the Post Office department. These services brought him into contact with many men of national fame and into participation in

events of lasting importance. His easy, vivacious narrative holds well the reader's attention and contains many a graphic description and interesting anecdote. It is of too chatty and discursive sort to be valuable to the high school pupil purely as a source of information, and so it will not supplement the text-book on that side, but it will illuminate and vitalize the text. Like Wise's "End of an Era" or M. B. Pryor's "Reminiscences of Peace and War," it is the sort of collateral reading that gives atmosphere and background and can be counted on to increase the pupils' zest for the subject of history.

WAYLAND J. CHASE.

YOUNG, FILSON. Christopher Columbus and the New World of His Discovery. New York, Henry Holt & Co. Third Edition, 1912. Pp. 464. \$2.50 net.

This book is a revised edition of Mr. Young's original two-volume work, published in 1906. (See American Historical Review, XII, 656-657.) The author states that he has rewritten parts of the book and revised it all completely, and Mr. Henry Vignaud, many of whose conclusions he accepts, has written a very approving letter which appears as an introduction to the present edition. The narrative of Columbus's life and the story of the establishment of his colonies is traced in detail, but in an interesting and readable popular style. Columbus is made very human. The author is sympathetic but portrays clearly the weaknesses of the great navigator as well as his many good qualities.

The book is not a work of original scholarship and will not appeal to the expert, but will prove interesting to general readers who care for the period. It is, however, too long and detailed to be suitable for high school history classes.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

SQUIRE, JACK COLLINGS. William the Silent. New York: Doubleday, Page & Co. Pp. xi, 319. \$3.00 net.

The story of the successful revolt of the brave Netherlanders against the fearful power of Spain has always been a favorite with readers and writers of history. The life of the wonderful leader who stimulated the revolt and held the Dutch people to it has been written by several authors to whom the writer of the present work acknowledges his indebtedness and admits the difficulty of finding much new material on the subject. Most attention is given to the middle part of William's life but not to the detriment of the other portions. The story is well told and interesting, but the need for this new book is not clear in view of recently published lives of the great man.

The book is too detailed for assigned reference reading in high schools, but will be useful for special reports and interesting to the general reader. Probably it will not be advisable for the ordinary school library to purchase the book.

CLARENCE PERKINS.

PERIODICAL LITERATURE

MARY W. WILLIAMS, M.A., EDITOR.

In "Letters of a Roman Gentleman," Gamaliel Bradford, Jr., in the *Yale Review* for October gives a pleasing treatment of Pliny.

"The Remains of Private War," by H. V. O'Brien, is an amusing account of duelling at the University of Heidelberg. (*The Independent*, December 19th.)

"Grass Never Grows Where the Turkish Hoof Has Trod," by Edwin Pears, is one of several articles, bearing more or less closely upon the Eastern question, to be found in *The National Geographic Magazine* for November.

Dr. Ludwig Riesz assumes a rather critical attitude towards Ranke in a long paper on "The Nepotism of Paul IV and the Source of the Spanish Predominance in the Period of the Counter-Reformation" (*Preussische Jahrbücher*, November).

"A Visit to the Czar" (*The Cornhill Magazine*, December) is the title of an unsigned article written by a member of the British deputation sent to Russia about a year ago. The minute details which enter into the sympathetic description of the Russian imperial family give unusual interest to the picture which is drawn.

Under the title "The Romance of Indian History," (*Blackwood's*, November) Sir Theodore Morison, K. C. I. E., points out the charming and romantic elements of the Moslem civilization in India previous to the eighteenth century.

"Abyssinian Ceremonies and Beliefs," by Marcel Cohen, is an article in *Revue de L'Histoire des Religions*, September-October, based upon information collected during a recent sojourn in Abyssinia. Though the superstitions of these people are of much interest, the writer considers the poverty of imagination in connection with their practice most remarkable.

"Patriotism and the Pacific Coast," by Prof. J. N. Bowman, of the University of California, appears in the *American Journal of Sociology* for November. In discussing the Pacific Coast as a *patria*, the writer says:

"The Coast has no Marathon, Lexington, or Sedan; in their place it has the Mother Lode, the Roosevelt Dam, and a rebuilt San Francisco. It has no Stratford, Weimar, or Concord; but it does have places where the 'last spike' was driven. It has no Abbey, St. Denis or Mt. Vernon; but it does have its plains, its mines and its Donner Lake. It has no 'Badenland' or 'Dixie,' but it does have a 'Watch Tacoma Grow.'"

Prof. Bowman calls attention to the fact that as the Coast has had but little to bind it together into a deep, conscious unity, the patriotism found there is still almost wholly imported, and is "an inheritance from beyond the Rockies. But in coming West this patriotism left its chauvinism in the old home." There is the beginning of a higher, better and more enlightened patriotism which is at present a refining influence on the whole nation.

The peace movement is considered critically by Archibald Hurd in *The Fortnightly Review* for December under the caption "The Great Delusion." The writer devotes considerable space to a discussion of the anomaly of the Balkan War and the policy of the British government and asserts his belief that humanitarianism primarily should be emphasized if the peace movement is to regain the respect of those who love their country. He concludes:

"The world—not England only—stands in need of men of simple faith and strong hope in the future of humanity who will convince men of the barbaric character of war with all its unspeakable horrors. The economist-pacifist and the armament-reductionist have been exposed. The way is open for a real peace movement, free from shoddy economics, world wide in its ramifications and world wide in its results."

NOTE.—Owing to an editorial error in the December *MAGAZINE*, the name of the author of the article entitled "Bismarck and Gladstone" appearing in *The Seacane Review* for October, was incorrectly given. The writer is Louis James Block, of Chicago.

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